

SEPTEMBER

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1908

THE CHAUTAUQUAN



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THE CHAUTAUQUA PRESS, PUBLISHING DEPARTMENT CHAUTAUQUA INSTITUTION,

FRANK CHAPIN BRAY, CHAUTAUQUA NEW YORK.

New York Office: Managing Editor
23 Union Square

Chicago Office:
5711 Kimbark Ave.

Entered according to the act of Congress, in the year 1908, by CHAUTAUQUA Press, in the office of the Librarian of Congress, at Washington.

Yearly Subscription, \$2.00. Single Copies, 25c.

Entered September 9, 1904, at the postoffice at Chautauqua, New York, as second class matter, under Act of Congress, July 16th, 1894.

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WORTH
WHILE

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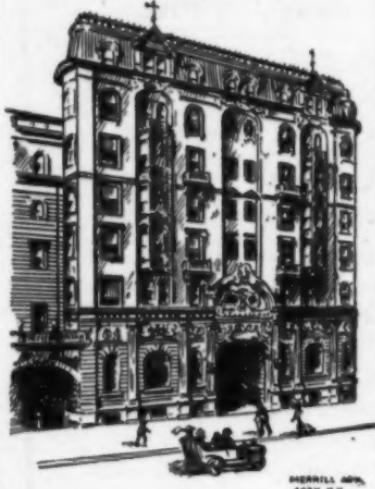
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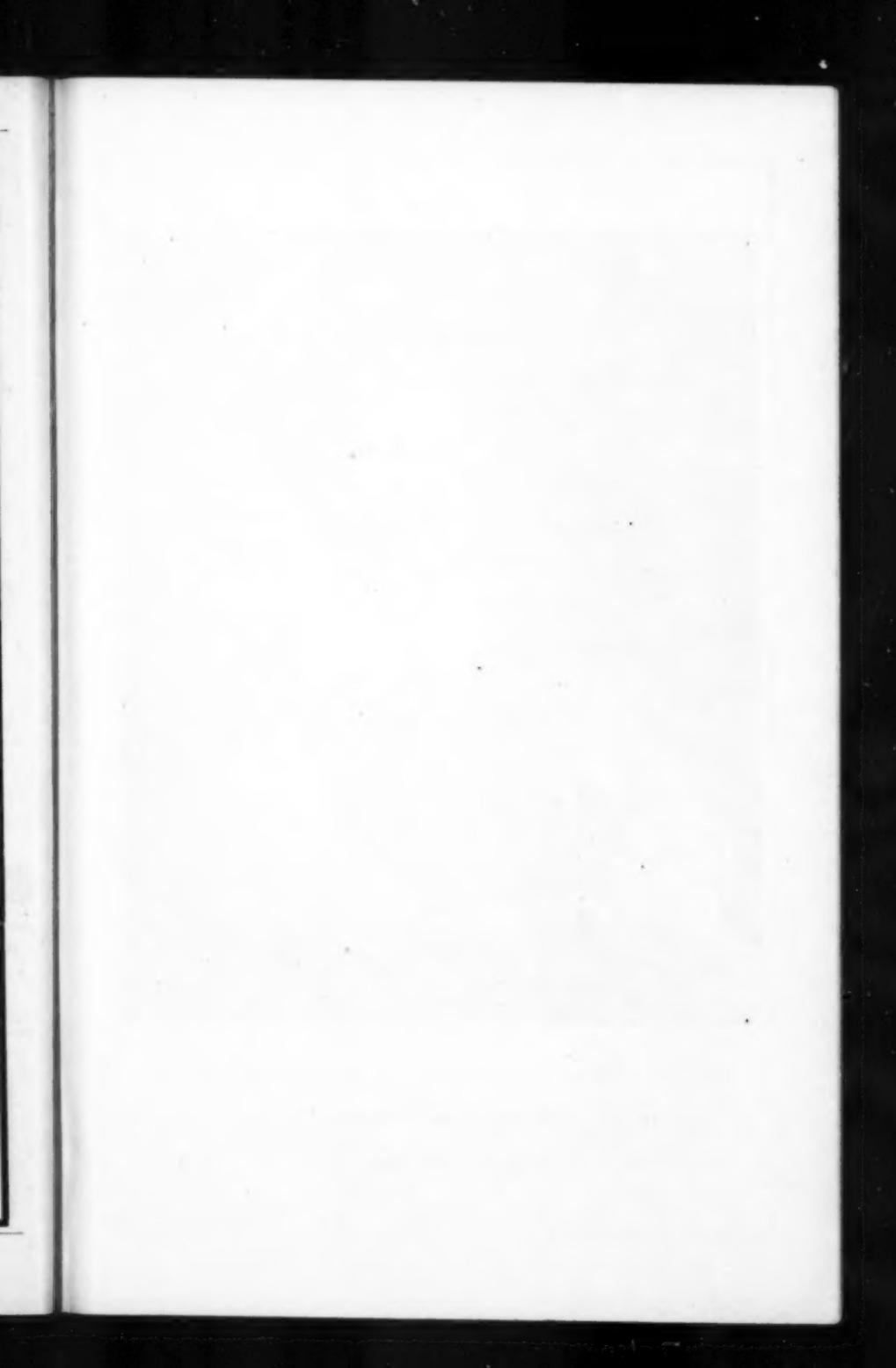
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(See "Dutch Art and Artists.")

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

Vol. 52

SEPTEMBER, 1908.

No. 1.



IN one respect the present presidential campaign is unique and unprecedented. There is to be full publicity as regards campaign contributions, though the law does not require it. Congress failed to enact a bill providing for the publication of lists of contributors and amounts by national campaign committees, and the Republican convention rejected a publicity plank that was proposed by the Wisconsin delegation. However, Mr. Taft has been an advocate of publicity and has directed that the New York state law be followed by the Republican committee, whose headquarters are in that state, regardless of any question of its technical applicability to the case. The treasurer of the committee, Mr. Sheldon, has announced that, in accordance with that law, an account will be published after the November election.

On the other hand, Mr. Bryan and his managers have announced and put in effect a system of publicity "before" the election. Only late contributions will be accounted for after that event: all others will be made known to the people at the time of their receipt by the campaign treasurer and his aids.

These developments mark a great step forward in our politics. For years all upright citizens have deplored the elements of waste, extravagance, secrecy and corruption, or fear and suspicion of corruption, in our campaigns. In local contests the practice of "gentlemen's agreements" between



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managers has come into vogue, the object of such agreements being to lessen expense and prevent abuse and corruption. In national politics, apparently, a new departure has been made. Elections will be regarded more and more as public affairs, and they will be determined by arguments and appeals to fact and reason, and not by noise and spectacular demonstrations. Expenses will be regulated and restricted, and public accounting will limit them to absolutely legitimate and proper methods of influencing voters—printing of documents, hiring of halls, correspondence, etc. The first step has been taken, and others will follow.

As to contributions from corporations, not many seemed to be aware at the outset of the campaign that a law already existed prohibiting and severely penalizing such contributions. Only individuals are now legally able to contribute to national campaigns; corporations are forbidden to do so. Scandalous misuse of stockholders' money, the bribing of two or more sets of campaign managers "impartially" and at the same time, and like evils caused a demand for the act in question, and it was passed early in 1907. To some politicians this act proved a revelation, but it will help to make the campaign clean and legitimate.



The Issues and the Personalities

As the presidential campaign progresses it is more and more widely realized that each of the great parties has put its best foot forward this year. Candid Democratic observers are admitting that Mr. Taft is a strong candidate who is displaying much ability and tact in meeting the problems of the contest. Independent and fair Republican newspapers are admitting that in Mr. Bryan the Democrats have the natural and logical candidate for the presidency. Neither party started out with a mistake; neither underestimates the qualities of the other's presidential ticket.

Mr. Bryan secured his nomination in spite of opposition from politicians and machines, and without the aid of money or patronage. Those who bitterly attacked him in former

years are bitterly attacking him now; to them he is still the dangerous radical, the demagogue, the maker of phrases. They would have brought about his defeat in the convention had not an overwhelming majority of the Democratic voters demanded his selection as standard-bearer, and had not the other candidates in the party declined and faded into a mere shadowy existence. Mr. Bryan leads the Democrats once more because his ideas and proposals are popular—as popular as are those of the President with the great majority of the Republicans. Mr. Taft is the Republican candidate because he is pledged to continue the reform policies of the present administration; Mr. Bryan is the Democratic leader because he is identified with an advanced and radical program. In each party the progressive wing is “on top,” and the conservatives who are demanding “a rest,” the cessation of agitation for reform, have had to subside and submit.

The Democratic platform is more radical than the Republican. It was intended to be so, and Mr. Bryan and his co-workers in the campaign are hoping on that account to attract and win over Republican radicals and ardent Rooseveltians. The issue as it is shaping itself is framed by many as follows: Granting the need of further political, economic and social reform, of continued warfare against evils and abuses, which candidate is the more likely to prove the consistent and bold champion of the cause of progress and reform?

A study of the two platforms shows that on many subjects the parties are in accord. Several planks in each are different from the corresponding ones in the other in mere phraseology or in minor details. This is true of the planks dealing with the navy, civil service, liberal pensions, conservation of natural resources, prevention of land frauds, improvement of water ways, etc. On the questions of the tariff, trust control, railroad regulation, labor, the currency, the Philippines, bank deposits and taxation, not to name minor topics, the Denver platform may be said to join issue

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with that of the Republicans. The Democrats incorporated some planks which a Republican minority, following the President, insisted on but failed to secure at Chicago. They declared for direct popular election of federal senators, a physical valuation of railroads with a view to scientific rate regulation, full publicity for campaign contributions. They declared for the extermination, instead of the control, of private monopoly, for placing all trust-manipulated goods on the free list, for reducing tariff duties to a revenue basis as rapidly as possible, for emergency notes issued by the government rather than by the banks, for an income tax, for an immediate announcement of intention to give the Filipinos independence, for the guaranteeing of private deposits in the national banks under a system similar to that now in force in Oklahoma, for a strong law fixing upon employers liability for accidents to their employes, for an eight-hour day on government work, and for limitations upon the issuance of injunctions after such a manner that no court could issue an injunction in an industrial dispute if no injunction were possible in a similar case affecting other interests than those of labor and capital.

On all issues except Philippine independence and "colonial" imperialism the differences in the respective planks are thus differences of degree. The Democrats are more radical than the Republicans but less radical than they were four and eight years ago, while the Republicans are more radical than before, though not as radical as the militant reformers wished the party to be.

The prospects are for a quieter and more reasonable campaign, for less denunciation and more argument; for "less heat and more light." Many editors and citizens are pleading for a rational campaign, one free from abuse, personalities, invective, in the interests of political honesty as well as in those of commerce and reviving prosperity. Men of affairs feel that in spite of politics business should steadily improve, since the issues of the campaign are neither new nor dangerous, and since the success of neither candidate

would spell a break with present policies and sudden departures.

There will be more harmony in the Democratic party than in the previous three elections, but in the East the Bryan ticket still has few newspaper supporters. Independents are leaning toward Mr. Taft but critical and vigorous in their comments on the situation. Both sets of leaders and managers admit that hard work is ahead of them and that there will be a lively and determined fight, especially in the West, which is to be the battle ground this year. All save one or two of the so-called doubtful states are in the West.



The Famous "Oil Case" Reversed

The reversal by the federal Circuit Court at Chicago of the decision of Judge Landis in the notable case of the United States vs. the Standard Oil Company of Indiana, one of the constituents of the Standard Oil trust, has legal as well as political aspects. The appellate tribunal severely criticised Judge Landis, alleging he abused his discretion in imposing the stupendous \$29,000,000 fine; that he arbitrarily computed the alleged offences of the defendant, making the number of cars in which oil was transported at unlawful rates the number of offenses punishable each by the maximum fine; and that he misinterpreted the law in holding that shippers must investigate rates instead of accepting those quoted by carriers and make sure that they are fair and lawful. It strongly intimated that Judge Landis had himself disregarded the law in seeking to punish the larger corporation, that was not before him as a party, for the sins of the smaller corporation, the legal defendant. In turn the appellate court is severely arraigned in many newspapers and by lawyers and laymen for alleged injustice to Judge Landis, for misquoting his words and misstating his position. The whole issue of "criticism of the courts" has

been revived, and all admit that the great case will figure as a factor in the campaign.

It is unfortunate that under the law as it stands the government has no right to appeal from the Circuit to the Supreme Court on the issues of law involved in the reversal. An act was passed by the Fifty-ninth Congress giving the government a limited right to appeal in criminal cases, but it does not embrace the class of cases to which the one in question belongs.

Ultimately, however, the Supreme Court will have the facts and issues before it, and it will determine whether Judge Landis or Judges Grosscup, Baker, and Seaman adopted the correct view of the commerce and anti-rebate or preference law as to the duties of shippers with regard to rates quoted to them, as to the proper method of computing offences, as to the limit of discretion in imposing fines, and as to the propriety of going outside the record of a case and finding out the affiliations, assets and character of the defendants with the idea of making the law and the general facts harmonize.

Until the highest court speaks opinion will honestly differ on the merits of the case and the soundness of the Landis decision. But there is no reason to doubt the integrity, the earnestness, the independence of either court. The case is undoubtedly full of novel and difficult points.

The Prohibition Ticket and Platform

The American prohibition movement, as we have had occasion to say before, has in recent years received impetus and encouragement from many new quarters. In the South remarkable gains have been made for and by prohibition under local option and state laws. Hundreds of thousands who vote as Republicans or Democrats have enlisted in the campaign against the saloon. The area of prohibition in the South and West is amazingly large, and while the con-

sumption of liquor shows an increase instead of a diminution for the country at large, the gains spoken of are very real. Even the liquor trade is alarmed and beginning to show earnest interest in reforming the saloon and the resort associated with vice and disorder.

At the national convention of the Prohibitionists, which was held at Columbus, O., in the latter part of July, the speakers dwelt with pride and satisfaction on the progress of their cause, if not of their party organization. A presidential ticket was nominated—Eugene W. Chafin of Illinois for President, and Aaron S. Watkins of Ohio for Vice President—and a platform was adopted that many newspapers have praised as a model of brevity, sense and lucidity. The whole platform may be reproduced here, as it shows where the Prohibitionists stand with regard to other issues of the day besides the issue that separates and distinguishes them from the other parties. The party favors:

The submission by Congress to the several states of an amendment to the federal Constitution prohibiting the manufacture, sale, importation, exportation or transportation of alcoholic liquors for beverage purposes.

The immediate prohibition of the liquor traffic for beverage purposes in the District of Columbia, in the territories and all places over which the national government has jurisdiction, the repeal of the internal revenue tax on alcoholic liquors and the prohibition of the interstate traffic there.

The election of the United States Senators by direct vote of the people.

Equitable graduated income and inheritance taxes.

The establishment of postal savings banks and the guaranty of deposits in banks.

The regulation of all corporations doing an interstate commerce business.

The creation of a permanent tariff commission.

The strict enforcement of law, instead of the official tolerance and practical license of the social evil which prevails in many of our cities, with its unspeakable traffic in girls.

Uniform marriage and divorce laws.

An equitable and constitutional employers' liability act.

Court review of Postoffice Department decisions.

The prohibition of child labor in mines, workshops and factories.

Legislation basing suffrage only upon intelligence and ability to read and write the English language.

The preservation of the mineral and forest resources of the country and the improvement of the highways and byways.

Here, as in the platform of the bigger parties, the spirit and tendencies of the time are strikingly illustrated and expressed. The positions taken on social, economic, and political questions are decidedly advanced.

The Prohibitionists do not claim that they will elect their ticket, but they do assert that the stress of tendency is with them and that success is almost within their grasp in the sense that prohibition will soon embrace the whole country.

In 1904 the Prohibition presidential vote was 258,536, and in 1900 it was 208,914; not in all the states, however, were there separate Prohibition tickets of presidential electors. This year the total vote is expected to be much heavier. But the growth and influence of the movement will not, in any event, be gauged by the vote. The indirect forces and factors working for prohibition will not be represented in it.



Progress in National Education

That Americans "have a passion for education," elementary, secondary and high has become a familiar saying the world over. Nowhere is education more liberally or lavishly endowed, and nowhere do the people tax themselves more cheerfully to provide free and sufficient education to all children, as well as to adult aliens who desire to acquire the rudiments of English and of other fundamental studies. For the latter there are night schools, special classes and settlement classes. For the children of the poor there are vacation schools where pleasure and recreation are combined with practical and manual instruction. As to the higher nontechnical education some statistics were recently published by Dr. Elmer E. Brown, federal commissioner of education, that have been widely commented upon. It appears that 622 institutions of higher learning are available in the country. Of these, seventeen universities and colleges have 1,000 or more male undergraduates each, four

have over 900 men students each, and 114 have 200 or more such undergraduates.

In the establishment of elementary and high schools the progress is steady and rapid, and the same is true of the professional schools. Yet there are very serious and vital problems before American educators. They have to do, not with quantity but with quality. New conditions create new needs; ideas are changing; neglected aspects of education are challenging attention. Is there proper adaptation of education to life in general and to industrial life in particular? Do the schools discharge their function efficiently? Do they omit things that should be included and unduly emphasize other things? Have they the right ideals and the right methods?

At the recent annual convention of the American Education Association these questions were vigorously discussed and certain defects in our system of public education were pointed out. The resolutions that were adopted are comprehensive and give one a fair idea of the whole situation. They note progress, recognize ripening and unsettled questions, and indicate needed reforms in several directions. We reproduce the more important parts of the resolutions because they largely carry their own moral:

Fully realizing that trained and skilled labor is a primary essential to the industrial and commercial welfare of the country, we cordially indorse the establishment by municipal boards of education of trade schools, industrial schools and evening continuation schools.

We recommend the subordination of highly diversified and overburdened courses of study in the grades to a thorough drill in essential subjects; ill considered experiments and indiscriminate methodizing should be abandoned.

We assert that the individuality of the pupil should be carefully considered, to the end that he may be instructed in the light of his limitations and capacity.

We earnestly recommend to boards of education, principals and teachers the continuous training of pupils in morals and in business and professional ethics, to the end that the coming generation of men of affairs may have a well developed abhorrence of unfair dealing and discrimination.

The bureau of education at Washington should be preserved in its integrity and the dignity of its position maintained and increased. It should receive at the hands of Congress such recognition

Highways and Byways

and such appreciation as will enable it not only to employ all expert assistants necessary, but also to publish in convenient and usable form the results of investigations; thus making that department a source of information and advice as will be most helpful to the people in conducting their campaigns of education.

The National Education Association notes with approval that the qualifications demanded of teachers in the public schools are increasing annually.

It is the duty of the state to provide for the education of every child within its borders. To this end the child labor and truancy laws should be so harmonized that the education of the child, not its labor, is made the chief concern.

The National Education Association indorses the increase of the school buildings for free vacation schools and for free evening schools and lecture courses for adults. We approve the use of school grounds for play grounds for the benefit of the children in the crowded districts during summer.

Local taxation, supplemented by state taxation, presents the best means for the support of the public schools.

The National Education Association observes with great satisfaction the tendency of cities and towns to replace large school communities or boards by small boards, which determine general policies, but intrust all executive functions to salaried experts.

We cannot too often repeat that close, intelligent, judicious supervision is necessary for all grades of schools.

The rapid establishment of rural high schools and the consolidation of rural district schools are most gratifying evidences of the progress of education.

The National Education Association wishes to record its approval of the increasing appreciation among educators of the fact that the building of character is the real aim of the schools.

The National Education Association wishes to congratulate the secondary schools and colleges of the country that are making an effort to remove the taint of professionalism and other abuses that have crept into students' sports.

We hope for such a change of public sentiment as will permit and encourage the reading and study of the English Bible.

School buildings and school grounds should be planned and decorated so as to serve as effective agencies for education in matters of taste.

The highest ethical standards of conduct and of speech should be insisted on among teachers.

Many important questions are adverted to in this declaration, but special emphasis is now properly laid on moral culture and industrial education. It is felt that the schools are far from doing all that they should and can do toward making good citizens, by inspiring high ideals and inculcating right standards, and toward fitting the pupils for the practical work of industrial and commercial life. In these directions great improvements are needful, and they are surely com-

ing. Beginnings have been made in several communities, and earnest discussion will insure progress at a reasonably rapid rate.



The School and the "Chasm"

In connection with the series of current educational questions, the chasm created in many homes by our present system of public school training challenges attention. Miss Jane Addams, the head of Hull-House and leader in social reform, is practically alone in directing thought to this matter. The work of the elementary schools in facilitating and promoting the assimilation of aliens, of "Americanizing" their young, is of course essential and invaluable. Without this work the heavy immigration of the last twenty years might have "swamped" us; at any rate, American political and public life would not be what it is, and our dangers and difficulties would be increased in every way. Yet this process of assimilation or Americanization is not without serious drawbacks, as Miss Addams has forcibly and admirably said in addresses and articles.

In thousands of foreign homes it creates a division, a moral chasm, between the children and the parents. The former are learning English and acquiring American ways; they are proud to call themselves Americans; they take pains to divest themselves of every feature that reminds them or others of their foreign birth or of the birth of their parents. They come to despise the traditions of the "old country," to be ashamed of the ways, customs, ideas of their families. The parents resent this and regard the "Americanization" of the children as by no means an unmixed blessing. At any rate, their own Americanization is retarded. What is worse, the discipline and peace and morals of the home are destroyed, and in their place we see dissension, antipathy, discord.

Miss Addams appeals to the educators to discourage such tendencies by teaching foreign children to respect na-

tionality and the culture of the old world, to understand that much that is foreign is good, noble and worth preserving, and that contempt for parents, even if they are ignorant and different, is not American. She also urges teachers to visit foreign homes, acquire some knowledge of the conditions and environment of the children put in their charge, and counteract everything that makes for the undesirable side of a too rapid assimilation—lack of reverence, vulgarity, insolence, imitation of the worst instead of the best.

These appeals and ideas have been strongly indorsed in the thoughtful newspapers, and they certainly point to a vital problem.



The Douma, Tolstoy, and the Russian Situation

Count Tolstoy, in a vigorous and impassioned philippic, recently denounced the policy of the Stolypin cabinet as "government by execution." Farcical trials, death sentences by the score, hanging of men, women, and minors, encouragement of black-hundred violence and disorder, bureaucratic tyranny and resistance to all reform, chronic famine and starvation for millions—these are the things, Tolstoy said, that are called law and order in Russia. He for one must repudiate and condemn them before the whole civilized world.

Many less uncompromising reformers than Tolstoy, the apostle of Christian Anarchism and passive resistance to state and organized church, are very pessimistic regarding the situation and prospects in Russia. The third douma, it is true, has not been dissolved; after a long and busy session the Tzar prorogued it until fall while expressing in private audience to its president hearty appreciation of its spirit, policy and course. It is generally expected that the present douma will complete its legal term of five years and accomplish something for Russian constitutionalism and progress. Its mere existence, of course, is a great benefit, for it insures discussion and criticism of official abuses and

certain reforms in administration and finance. It must be acknowledged, too, that on several occasions the majority of the third douma, though moderate and only mildly liberal, ventured boldly to attack the irresponsible control of army and naval affairs by the grand dukes, the inefficient and obstructive staff of the admiralty, and the provincial military despots. It also rejected the demand of the government for an appropriation for four new war ships—on the ground that the service had not been reformed and that the ships would serve no useful purpose at this time. Still, the fact remains that the douma neglected the vital and burning questions of Russia—agrarian reform, justice, freedom of speech and press, etc. The budget occupied most of its time, and it voted for heavy “defence” expenditures in the Pacific territories, for a new domestic loan to cover the deficit for the year, for an “all Russian” Amur railroad to Vladivostok, in addition to the road that traverses Manchuria, which is to be improved and largely reconstructed, and for other governmental measures. The government has no particular reason to be dissatisfied with its record to date, though it is gradually developing courage and confidence.

The Russian constitutionalists find some comfort, however, in the reflection that the reaction has been checked, that even the fanatical monarchists no longer hope to destroy the douma as an institution, and that certain small reforms are being conceded by the government. Progress will be very slow, and much injustice, suffering and cruelty will have to be endured, but the tendency, at any rate, is upward and forward. Not everything has been lost, and the Revolution will yet bear fruit.



Reaction of Persia, and European Responsibility

The Shah of Persia has tried a *coup d'état* and succeeded. He has dismissed the national assembly, and destroyed the buildings in which it was housed. For a time

civil war was threatened all over the country, but the troops of the Shah, led by a Russian general, were so completely victorious at Teheran, the capital, that the provinces lost heart and submitted. In the capital the war between the constitutionalists and the reactionaries was savage and merciless, and tales of cruelty and torture, of wholesale executions and bombardments of private houses owned by liberal leaders and members of the assembly, have shocked the western world.

The causes of the counter-revolution are not clearly understood. It is known, however, that the Shah, though he has repeatedly sworn to uphold and respect the present constitution, which is less than a year old and which includes concessions to the throne, has never fully sympathized with the constitutional movement or cause and has on various occasions overstepped the limits of his power. There had been frequent collisions between him and his ministers, on the one hand, and the national assembly on the other. That assembly is by no means democratic, but it represents the mercantile elements, the priests, the educated citizens who have traveled abroad and a part of the aristocracy. The example of Russia has been before its eyes, and it has aimed at reform in many directions. When the final rupture came few good observers were surprised. Many at once concluded that the end of the whole parliamentary or constitutional experiment had come in Persia, which, they said, was not really ripe for any form of representative government and could not be other than a typical Oriental despotism.

Certainly the Shah's proclamation and explanation to his people and to the world indicated an absurd conception of constitutionalism. They were full of bitter complaints against "irresponsible" societies and clubs that "meddle" in governmental affairs, and against disturbers and agitators who had plotted against the throne and impudently demanded reform of a radical character. These private societies had to be suppressed with a firm hand, for government must remain

in the hands of trained and competent persons, the Shah continued. Unfortunately, he admitted, the national assembly supported them and was willing to use and be used by them; hence the war of extermination had to be extended to the assembly itself. These are strange notions, even for Persia, and they throw little light on the situation.

However, the Shah has ordered another election of members of the national assembly and has promised to respect the essentials of the constitution. He has decided to establish an upper chamber, which he has no right to do under the constitution, but after the *coup d'état* this is a minor usurpation.

It is believed that England and Russia have prevented the Shah from overthrowing the new regime entirely. Their treaty, regulating their respective interests and spheres in Persia, renders co-operation between them a possible policy; if the treaty and understanding had not been reached the Persian internal disorders might have led to intervention, friction and war between England and Russia. But it is also said that the understanding has hampered England in Persia and injured the cause of liberty and constitutionalism. Possibly the Shah and the reactionary cliques have relied on Russian support and have felt themselves safe from English displeasure and resentment. Thus Europe may be responsible for evil and reaction in Persia, and a diplomatic victory for peace in Europe may entail a defeat for liberalism in the Orient. This, however, is to a certain extent speculative. It is still hoped that the counter-revolution in Persia may not be complete and crushing.



THE FRIENDSHIP of NATIONS

INTERNATIONAL WAR or PEACE?

I. The Present European Equilibrium and the Peace of the World

By Victor S. Yarros

SUCH phrases as "the balance of power," the "concert of Europe," the "European Equilibrium" and the like have become thoroughly familiar even to the casual reader of the political news published in the daily and weekly press. The same casual reader knows that the powers of the world form various alliances, understandings, combinations among themselves for various purposes, either aggressive or defensive. Today, it is generally supposed and understood, the peace of the world rests upon and is secured by a number of such alliances and understandings. Any change in the present grouping of, or relations between, the great powers has a bearing on or constitutes a phase of what is called "world-politics," and may conceivably disturb the equilibrium.

Yet things constantly happen in the political and diplomatic spheres of activity, and every year, not to say every month, brings its crop of incidents, developments, events, and crises. There is no stability in international relations, for many problems are still unsolved in Europe, Asia, America, and there are, unfortunately, many grounds for suspicion, jealousy, friction, and discord between the leading powers. The great German empire builder and diplomat, Bismarck, says in his "Reflections and Reminiscences:"

"International policy is a fluid element which, under certain conditions, will solidify, but, on change of atmos-



King Edward of England, who has done much to Promote good
Feeling between European Powers.



Victor Emanuel III., King of Italy.



Kaiser Wilhelm II., the War Lord of Germany.



Chancellor von Buelow of Germany, one of the greatest Diplomats
in Europe.



Emperor Franz Joseph of Austro-Hungary.



Sir Edward Grey, who aided in concluding Anglo-Russian Treaty.

phere, reverts to its original condition."

The important fact to be recognized is that nations even more than individuals and corporations, are governed by their fundamental needs and interests. Dynastic ties, personal and family friendships, individual temperaments are not wholly without influence on international policy, but their influence is limited and transitory. In the long run, geographical, historical, physical, commercial, organic conditions determine the foreign policy of a nation—its ambitions, aspirations, efforts and measures. Hence, when any real need or vital interest dictates a revision or even a reversal of policy, all opposition of a sentimental nature vanishes as if by magic.

A glance at the "world-situation" at this juncture reveals certain cardinal features. We have a condition of fairly stable equilibrium. All the great powers are professing an anxious desire to maintain peace. All are earnestly disclaiming aggressive designs. All are favoring straightforwardness, candor, and "sweet reasonableness" in international relations. Whether the Emperor of Germany visits England, or the King of Great Britain and Ireland visits France, or a meeting is arranged between the Tzar and his Teutonic or Austro-Hungarian fellow-sovereign, the message, formal or informal, which the world receives as the result of the affair is a message of peace and cordiality. Yet Europe has well been described as an armed camp. Military and naval expenditures are steadily mounting; the suggestion of even partial disarmament, or limitation of budgets for so-called defence, has remained a vague aspiration, a dream.

An able writer, Mr. J. Holland Rose, closes a book on "The Development of the European Nations, 1870-1900," with these depressing sentences:



M. Delcassé, formerly French Foreign Minister.



The Tzar of Russia, a Leader in the Movement for International Peace.

him. . . . From these weltering masses, engaged in piling up work upon work against some remote contingency, there arises and will still more arise a dull, confused, questioning murmur, whether the whips of fear which drive them on are not wielded by some malignant fury masquerading in the garb of peace—whether the whole gigantic effort is not a hideous nightmare, a game with men's lives doomed to end in stalemate."

This is a good description of the sort of "balance" which Europe is boasting of today; and yet it is a fact of tremendous significance that since the war of 1870 Germany "has not fired a shot in anger" (to use the expression of a brilliant journalist) and that since the Russo-Turkish conflict of 1877 Europe has not been the scene of any hostilities. Provocations and opportunities have not been lacking, but the peace has been kept, friendly relations have been strengthened, and safeguards multiplied.

"What was true of the middle of the eighteenth century is trebly true of the dawn of the twentieth century. Viewing the matter broadly, we must admit that the present state of armed truce combines many of the worst evils of war and of an emasculating torpor. It is neither a state of rest which builds up the fabric of humanity, nor a time of heroic endeavor such as sometimes mitigates the evils of war. The individual is crushed by a sense of helplessness as he gazes at the armed millions on all sides of

Among these safeguards are the alliances and understandings which exist today in Europe. Some of them are recent and full of vitality; others, it is held by competent students, are mere survivals, whose significance, once great, has been impaired by the march of events. Still, so long as they remain in effect, they are factors that must be reckoned with.

In brief, it may be said that the European balance is supported by the following combinations, named in chronological order:

The Triple Alliance, the parties to which are Germany, Austro-Hungary, and Italy.

The Dual Alliance of Russia and France.

The Anglo-Japanese Alliance.

The Anglo-French "entente cordiale" (cordial understanding).

The Algeciras Treaty in regard to Morocco.

The Anglo-Russian understanding.

There are also in effect various partial and limited agreements and special treaties between France and Italy, France and Spain, Russia and Japan, Russia and Austria, Japan and China, and most, if not all of these, have an indirect bearing on the situation in Europe, even where they ostensibly and in terms have reference to interests in Asia or Africa. Space will not permit a consideration of these minor agreements and arrangements, and our attention must be directed to the above mentioned major factors.

To understand fully the existing alliances and groupings of the leading powers, it would be necessary to know much more than actually is known concerning the secret history of European diplomacy. In diplomacy language is still used quite as much to conceal as to express thought and there are, besides, many points in the origin, evolution, and real purposes of the alliances and understandings that have not been cleared up. In general, however, it is undoubtedly true that the present European situation and "balance" must be traced to the momentous Franco-Prussian war of 1870, the found-

ing of the German Empire as a direct consequence of the issue of that war, and the dangers which Italy, Russia, and England saw in those developments, as well as in their respective internal conditions.

The Triple Alliance was originally a dual alliance between Germany and Austro-Hungary. And that dual alliance at first had reference only to defensive operations in the event of an attack on either of the parties by Russia. It was negotiated by Bismarck in 1879, who explained it, according to his secretary, Busch, as follows: "When we (Germany and Austria) are united with 2,000,000 soldiers back to back, the Russians with their nihilism will doubtless think twice before disturbing the peace." The terms of this treaty were not officially published until 1888, and in substance, they provided for these contingencies: If either of the allies should be attacked by Russia, the other must come to its aid with all its forces. If the attack should be made by any other power, the ally must merely observe perfect neutrality.

Italy joined the alliance in 1882, as a result of her dissatisfaction with the seizure of Tunis by France in the previous year. Italy herself had had her eyes on Tunis, and its annexation by the French, with the tacit consent of Germany, proved to be the cause of a long and unnatural estrangement between the two Latin nations. The terms of the treaty whereby the Triple Alliance was formed have never been authoritatively given to the world, but the general understanding is that the three powers reciprocally guaranteed the possession of their respective territories, agreed to resist attack on any one of them, and stipulated the amount of aid to be given by each in case of hostilities with France or Russia or both powers.

The Triple Alliance did not prevent Bismarck from concluding a secret treaty with Russia, which compact, when its existence had been revealed, led to an outcry and a denunciation of the Teutonic Chancellor for duplicity and bad faith. By that agreement, which lapsed with the fall of Bismarck, Germany and Russia bound themselves to observe

neutrality in case either of them should be attacked by a third power.

It is clear, then, that the object of these treaties was the preservation of peace and the prevention of "surprises" and aggressions. But the Triple Alliance initiated the great modern tendency toward the much-vaunted "equilibrium" of Europe. Its formation, in connection with other occurrences to be mentioned, caused France, Russia, and England great anxiety. It is even believed that in 1886 France and Russia tried to break up that combination by offering inducements to Italy to withdraw from it and seek territorial advantages at the expense of Austria.

If the policy of Russia, in the seventies of the last century was considered dangerous to the peace of Europe, so dangerous as to necessitate a powerful alliance, it is equally true that the policy of Germany under the Bismarck regime as Chancellor of the Empire, was considered full of danger to France, England, Russia, and the peace of the world generally. It is this danger which prompted France and Russia—the one a republic and the other an autocracy—to lay aside many differences, incompatibilities of temper and deep-seated suspicions and conclude a dual alliance. This latter alliance was also a somewhat gradual development.

The friendlier feelings between Russia and France at first manifested themselves in arrangements for placing Russian loans in Paris. The first of these loans was quietly negotiated in 1888. But among the decisive influences which finally brought about the complete understanding may be named what is known among diplomatic writers as "the affair of 1875."

France, by that time, had fully and marvelously recovered from the disaster of the "terrible year," 1870. She was again confident, prosperous, and strong. In the year named, she voted a large increase of her armed forces, while her politicians and newspapers were openly advocating preparations for the eventual reconquest of Alsace and Lorraine, the provinces she had lost to Germany. Her people

were not reconciled, as they are now, to what was called the dismemberment of France by the ruthless Bismarck. In order to prevent an attack or a war of revenge by France, the military party of Germany urged on the emperor to assume the offensive and by an immediate attack reduce France to impotence. Various hints, it appears, were thrown out by the Teutonic ambassadors to that effect, and great apprehension was excited. The Paris correspondent of the London *Times*, de Blowitz, was authorized, indeed asked by the French premier, to publish the facts. He did so, and produced a sensation in every European capital. The Tzar, to whom the French government dispatched a special envoy with documents, gave the latter assurance that he would interfere to prevent an unprovoked war on France. Queen Victoria and the British government also evinced genuine concern and used their good offices to end the tension and the crisis. These efforts were successful and as already stated, the "scare" served to bring Russia and France together.

Visits of the two fleets were interchanged in 1891 and finally the Tzar overcame his distrust of republicanism and the alliance was concluded. The treaty embodying the terms of this alliance has never been published but, according to Mr. Henry Norman, M. P., author of "All the Russias," it provides that "if either nation is attacked, the other will come to its assistance with the whole of its forces, and that peace shall only be concluded in concert and by agreement between the two."

Both the Triple and Dual Alliances have been renewed a number of times and are in effect today, though, owing to various developments, their real significance has changed. The relations between Italy and France are again friendly and have been so since 1901, when "an understanding" was arrived at between them in regard to mutual interests in the Mediterranean Sea and in Africa. In 1903 a treaty of arbitration was signed by them, and the Italian statesmen frankly avowed that the considerations which had led their country

to enter into partnership with Germany and Austria had lost much of their weight. On the other hand, the relations of Germany and Russia have greatly improved; during the Russo-Japanese war Emperor William displayed considerable good-will toward the St. Petersburg government, and since then visits have been exchanged and cordial greetings rather ostentatiously published. The Emperor has called the Tzar "Admiral of the Pacific" while applying to himself the title "Admiral of the Atlantic." As to England, her whole situation has been changed, thanks to King Edward's diplomacy and tact, and thanks, too, to a realization that her foreign policy for some decades had been narrow and unsafe.

Early in 1902 a second dual alliance was formed—between England and Japan. The former had boasted of her "splendid isolation," referring to the lack of connection with either group of the great European powers. But she had secretly felt that the isolation was by no means as magnificent as it could be made to appear to the unsophisticated. There were troublesome questions in the near East, in the far East, in Egypt, and in Africa (to some of which we shall refer in our second article) which needed delicate handling. The war with the Transvaal Boers had aroused extreme bitterness against England in Continental Europe, and in Germany a press campaign of singular violence had been carried on, representing Great Britain as the natural enemy of the advancing Teutonic Empire. It was, therefore, a bold stroke to enter into an alliance with a yellow, Asiatic, non-Christian power. The announcement of the Anglo-Japanese agreement was received with amazement—in some quarters with scorn and contempt. But the event, all agree, has justified it, though of late there have been some hints from high British quarters that it may not be renewed upon its expiration, owing to the threatened revival of a serious anti-European propaganda in Asia.

The text of this treaty of alliance shows that the contracting powers had in view the maintenance of the inde-

pendence and integrity of China and Korea, the preservation of the "open door" (equality of commercial rights in the Far East), and the safeguarding of peace. Each party, however, recognized the special interests of the other in China or Korea, and proceeded to pledge itself as follows:

"If either Great Britain or Japan, in defence of their respective interests, should become involved in war with another power, the other high contracting party will maintain a strict neutrality, and use its efforts to prevent other powers from joining in hostilities against its ally. If, in the above event, any other power or powers should join in hostilities against that ally, the other high contracting party will come to its assistance, and will conduct the war in common, and make peace in mutual agreement with it."

It is this alliance which, according to general opinion, "localized" the Russo-Japanese War. But for it, France might have joined in the conflict over Manchuria and Korea, and had that happened, no one knows where the struggle would have ended.

Even the alliance with Japan, however, did not reassure the statesmen of England and there was profound satisfaction when, the wounds inflicted by the sympathy of continental Europe for the Boers having healed, it was found possible for England to come to a comprehensive understanding with France. The credit for this momentous agreement, comprising three distinct conventions and settling old and disturbing controversies, belongs to M. Delcassé, the then minister of foreign affairs in France, whose whole policy was enlightened and pacific (though Germany thought it was designated to "isolate" her and draw Italy, Spain, and England closer and closer to France), and to Lord Lansdowne, Britain's foreign minister under Salisbury and Balfour.

The conventions referred to dealt respectively (1) with West Africa and Newfoundland; (2) with Egypt and Morocco; and (3) with Spain, Madagascar, and the New Hebrides. Passing over the minor and perhaps too technical features of these treaties, it is sufficient to say that their chief importance lies in the recognition of French special and paramount interests in Morocco by England, and in

the reciprocal recognition by France of the status quo in Egypt. France had never before acknowledged the legitimacy of England's rule over Egypt and had, from time to time, reminded the London government of the explicit pledge of Gladstone to evacuate that country (still nominally subject to Turkey). The understanding put an end to all possible friction over the occupation and its consequences. On the other hand, England declared expressly that, as the master of Algeria and Tunis, France properly claimed the right to maintain order in Morocco and use her influence to improve the financial, administrative, and military position of that misgoverned country.

To the average man this Morocco feature of the agreement meant, simply, that so far as England is concerned, France might annex the Moorish kingdom and end the anarchical and dangerous conditions that are chronic there. This, however, was not the "correct official view," though Germany was disposed to side with the downright average man. The Emperor resented the pretensions of the French in Morocco, visited Tangiers in person, made a vigorous little speech to German residents, and asserted that he would defend their commercial interests as well as those of their fellow subjects at home. There had been no talk of injuring or discriminating against German interests in Morocco (other interests she did not claim) but the general comment on the visit and speech was that the Kaiser had intended to serve notice on England and France that he could not be ignored in any matter affecting the European balance or the disposition of territory in Africa, Asia, or elsewhere. For a time, all Europe was filled with apprehension—there was even talk of war. But all ended happily.

The Morocco question had become acute, and internal disorder tended to aggravate the difficulty. In order to relieve the situation, a conference of the powers was called at Algeciras in 1906 for the ostensible purpose of definitely settling the status of Morocco and the relation of France, Spain, and the other nations thereto. All the leading powers,

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including the United States, were represented at the conference and an agreement was reached after many delays. Germany at first refused to acknowledge the peculiar and paramount interest of France in Morocco, but at last she yielded. The Algeciras Treaty provided for better policing of the ports of Morocco under French and Spanish instructors and officers, for suppression of contraband in arms, for improved customs duties and sources of revenue, and for the "open door," or economic equality, for the powers trading in the kingdom.

As a matter of fact, as will be shown in a later paper, the conference only postponed the settlement of the ultimate Moroccan question. Germany gained nothing beyond this delay, and France lost nothing, because she was not ready, in any event, to become actually the master of that kingdom; she knew that the conditions were not right for a *coup* similar to that of the occupation of Tunis. She had other questions on her hands and was willing to wait as regards Morocco. But Germany's apparent aggressiveness alarmed Europe and was resented by Italy, her ally. It led to some pointed and plain remarks about the "hollowness" of the Triple Alliance, and Emperor William himself manifested his displeasure in a characteristic utterance which Italy construed as a charge of ingratitude and disloyalty against her. On the whole, the Moroccan incident is considered to have been a blunder, especially in view of its effect on the native rulers and the more fanatical tribesmen, who have threatened a "holy war" on all Europeans and Christians.

If, however, the Algeciras Treaty must be considered insincere and illusory from a "long run" point of view, more favorable judgment is distinctly invited by the Anglo-Russian understanding and treaty, in which, notwithstanding some criticisms, most diplomatic experts see a real triumph for peace and good-will, a long step toward permanent peace. That England and Russia could come together at all and find their interests to be by no means hopelessly in con-

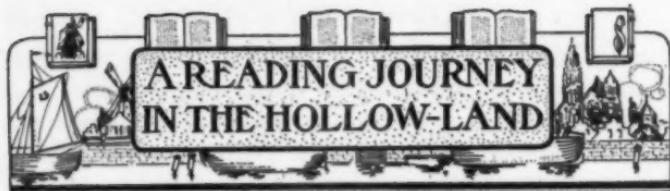
flict was a surprise to many. Which power made the larger concessions is an open and not very important question. But there is ground for hope that the provisional agreement will be in due time replaced by a permanent one.

The Anglo-Russian Convention, negotiated by Sir Edward Grey and M. Isvalski, the foreign ministers of the two "contracting parties," was signed in the fall of last year. It embraces three sets of questions—those relating to Persia, those relating to Afghanistan, and those relating to Tibet. In substance, the treaty gives England a "sphere of influence" and financial control in the south, and Russia a similar sphere in the north of Persia, a debt-ridden country that is nominally independent and supposed to be passing from an autocratic to a constitutional regime. As to Tibet, both parties agreed to respect China's suzerain rights over it and pledged themselves not to seek concessions and franchises in that mysterious land. Afghanistan, Russia declared to be outside her sphere and influence, and agreed to deal with it through British officials.

British India "breathed freely" again after the ratification of this treaty, for the "invasion of India" menace had been removed. The liberal-minded elements of both countries welcomed the treaty as a splendid achievement.

But it would be rash to assert that any one of the existing alliances or all of them can be regarded as an absolute pledge of peace. There are possibilities of friction and conflict in many directions. The really effective guaranties of amity and concord are moral and industrial. The occasional regrouping of the powers is to be expected; "understandings" will come and go; but education, national interest, the demand for great social reforms, the difficulty of financing needless wars,—these are a constantly increasing influence.

In another article we shall glance at the international problems that are still unsolved and that from time to time give rise to "incidents" and diplomatic excitement—problems whose solutions may involve momentous readjustment, political and territorial.



Part I. Its Origin.*

By George Wharton Edwards

THE first inhabitants of Holland came from Germany, and adopted as their new home the island of Batavia, a long strip of land lying within the forked estuary of the Rhine. So brave a race were they that the body guards of the Roman Emperors were drawn from their ranks. It is said that Friesland and the northern districts were likewise peopled with these German migrants but they differed in national character and admitted no allegiance to the Romans, then paramount throughout northwest Europe, and became known as the free Frisians. Under Charlemagne's powerful rule (A. D. 800) the provinces, including what is now Belgium, were united. After the conquest of the Belgians, the Batavians became the allies of Rome; later on they disappeared. Fifty years later, by the treaty of Verdun, the country was divided. Batavia and Friesland were allotted to Germany, while Dukes and Counts each ruling, yet subject to the German Emperors, were appointed to the provinces which now became principalities. Trade routes were established to distant parts of the world; law rather than might made itself manifest in various charters from princes to people. At the end of the thirteenth century, the rulers are found presiding over the provincial estates, marking the beginning of constitutional government. At this period came the great inundation when the North Sea burst through the dunes and rolled in over the low lying lands, uniting with an inland lake. The ocean

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engulfed more than a thousand Frisian villages and formed the present Zuider Zee. Philip, Duke of Burgundy, surnamed "The Good," dispossessed his young cousin, Jacqueline, of her rightful heritage of Hainault, Zeeland, and North and South Holland. Soon after he acquired Luxemburg and assumed lordship over Friesland as a matter of course. He established at Bruges (1429) the Order of the Golden Fleece; in 1467 he was succeeded by his son, Charles the Bold, whose dominant object was to make his dukedom a kingdom. He ruined his country financially, and died ignominiously. His daughter, the Lady Mary, inherited the vast but impoverished realm. They lie buried side by side in magnificent gilded, enameled, and marble tombs in the Cathedral at Bruges.

Louis the XI. of France, another member of the Golden Fleece, earned the laurels of the order by seizing Burgundy. It was now that Lady Mary, to secure the loyal adhesion of her subjects, granted them "the Great Privilege," the magna charta of Holland. In 1493, her husband, the Archiduke Maximilian of Austria, inherited his father's throne. Notice the accretion of thrones and principalities. Maximilian's son, Philip the Fair, heir to enormous territory, married the Princess of Castile and Aragon, and thus added Spain to the family domain. Philip's son was Charles the Fifth, King of Spain, Emperor of Germany, Emperor of Austria, King of the Netherlands, Duke of Burgundy, and monarch practically of half the known world.

Under the Spanish rule, the inhabitants of Holland became restive and finally, forcibly resented its tyranny and robbery, following which Charles V. confiscated the Great Privilege and all municipal rights. The people demurred. Punishment swiftly followed, and Charles scourged the people into submission with rods of iron, and squandered their blood and treasure in European wars. He now sought to exterminate heresy by executions and failed. In 1555, wearied with wars and the cares of state, he abdicated in

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favor of his son, Philip II., a gloomy monarch of fanatical tendencies, assassinator of William, Prince of Orange; the strongest maintainer of the Inquisition with its tens of thousands of slaughtered victims and the deliberate midnight murderer of his own son, Don Carlos. Holland's darkest hour was at hand. Motley vividly portrays the hell let loose upon the kingdom. With the assistance of his servile minister, Granville, the Inquisition did its work. The King retired to Spain but quartered his Spanish troops throughout the States, to the impoverishment and despair of the people. The King's sister, Margaret of Parma, was installed in the Netherlands as regent. At this distressful period, three champions of liberty, namely, William, Prince of Orange, Count Egmont, a brilliant general, and Count Horn, urged the King to redress the people's wrongs. They claimed (1) the withdrawal of the troops, (2) the removal of the inquisition, (3) the restoration of the people's right through the states' general to vote the sums of money demanded by the King. The King now retired both Margaret of Parma and Granville in favor of the Duke of Alva and the garrisons were doubled by an army sent from Spain to suppress the insurrection and root out the heretics. With callous brutality, Alva invited Egmont and Horn to a banquet; though urged by William of Orange to beware of treachery, they went, were seized by Alva's soldiers, and notwithstanding their rank and services to Philip, were executed. By beheading, hanging, burning, and torturing on the rack, the Duke of Alva put to death some one thousand persons while many thousands were driven out of the country. The insurrection then became a war of independence, under the leadership of William of Orange. Eventually, the Dutch Protestants were successful, and several of the provinces, renouncing their allegiance to Spain, proclaimed the Prince of Orange, Stadholder, and by a treaty at Utrecht (1579) laid the foundation of the Dutch republic.

William the Silent, who is said to have earned the

"soubriquet" because he controlled himself and made no comment when Henry II., had arranged a general massacre of Protestants throughout France and the Netherlands, saved by his prudence at any rate for a time, the threatened disaster. He was Charles V.'s favorite ambassador. He was born 1533 and died in 1584. Although a staunch Catholic and supporter of the King, William repeatedly protested to him against Alva's atrocities but without the slightest effect. The Council of Blood was now established, and incredible as it is now to believe, sentence of death was passed upon the whole of the inhabitants of the Netherlands. (February 16, 1568.) Philip confirmed the edict, and ordered its immediate execution. Thus Alva's victims could be executed without even the formality of a mock trial. (See Motley.) William of Orange now took active steps to oppose Alva, but too utterly cowed to assist, the Dutch populace remained passive while the Prince spent his own fortune on foreign troops. Despite the valor of his brothers Louis and John, defeats followed. The beggars of the sea, a body of nobles banded together to resist Alva, met with some success. Prince William's own States, Zeeland and Holland, on land alone, showed determination to resist. The massacre of St. Bartholomew only stimulated the desires of Philip and Alva. Cities whose inhabitants defied the Spaniards were besieged. Surrender on promise of mercy nearly always resulted in the inhabitants being put to the sword, as at Naarden and Haarlem. (See Motley.) The siege of Leiden, however, brought a sudden check to the Spaniards, for when the city was at its last gasp, William, from his fever stricken couch, ordered the cutting of the dykes, whereby the country was flooded. His fleet of war ships being in readiness, he sailed up to the very walls of the city. Through years of toil and privation Prince William held to his trust, the freeing of his country. Affectionately called Father William, he matched his intellect against the cleverest men of his age, and with his enthusiasm kept alive the waning spark of

national patriotism. His is a solitary and splendid figure. When in 1581 the Holland States finally renounced their allegiance to Spain, Prince William was elected Stadholder, after he had emphatically refused any higher title. On July 10, 1584, an obscure hireling of Philip II., tempted by the large reward offered by the King, gained access and secreted himself near the principal stairway of Prince William's house. Armed with a pistol, he fired several poisoned bullets at the Prince, two of which took effect.* Thus passed the spirit of this great man, his last words as he fell being a prayer, "God save this unhappy country." The murderer was promptly executed, his flesh being torn from his body by hot pincers, but his parents, on claiming the blood money from Philip II., were at once exalted and granted patents of nobility. William's son, Maurice, was then elected Stadholder, and ruled until 1625 amid a period of increasing prosperity. The republic grew and flourished in spite of the theological disputes which were rife, and in consequence of which the pensionary, John Van Oldenbarneveld, was put to death by Maurice. The war with Spain was vigorously carried on. The Dutch admirals, De Ruyter and Tromp, added immensely to the power and reputation of Holland. With commercial prosperity, the population rapidly increased; both on land and sea the Dutch defeated their former masters. The merchant fleets navigated the world and founded the Dutch colonies. On the death of Maurice, his brother, Frederick Henry (1645-1647), succeeded as Stadholder and the prosperity of the country reached its zenith. The commerce of Holland was renowned the world over and the Dutch navigators, painters, and scientists, were in their full glory. By the peace of Westphalia, the great work of William the Silent was completed. Europe acknowledged the independence of the provinces and William II., son of Frederick, came to the throne, surviving his father by only a few years. In consequence of dissensions breaking out, John De Witt was

*See Library Shelf in this magazine.

elected Grand Pensionary. In 1652, the first naval war with England was declared, in consequence of the navigation act passed by the English parliament which was intended to promote the navigation of Britain and to strike a blow at the naval power of the Dutch. Admirals Tromp and De Ruyter came to the fore and the English fleet suffered more than one heavy reverse. At the outbreak of the second war in 1664, De Ruyter succeeded in sailing up the river Thames as far as Chatham. Louis XIV. of France, cast covetous eyes on the Netherlands, alleging a right to them on behalf of his Spanish wife, Maria Theresa, but he was checkmated by the triple alliance, formed by John De Witt between England, Holland's quondam enemy, and Sweden and Holland to resist that very attack. De Witt, however, fell a victim to the vengeance of the people who accused him of harboring designs against the Stadholder, William III, who was now at the head of the provinces. In 1672, England went to war with Holland again, and in the same year the triple alliance having been dissolved, Louis of France took possession of certain of the Dutch provinces, and De Witt, with his brother, was killed by the infuriated Dutch mob at the Hague. The young Prince of Orange then became Stadholder, and in 1688 was crowned William III, King of England. His cousin, Prince John William of Friesland, was elected President of the Republic and waged war with England against France. The war lasted for about eight years, terminating in the treaty of Utrecht, 1713. John's son, William IV., followed as Stadholder and again war with England for naval supremacy ensued. In 1781, Holland lost most of her colonies and the French Republic took possession of Holland in 1795. The brother of Napoleon, Louis Bonaparte, was made king in 1805, and five years later Bonaparte formally annexed Holland under the pretext that it was an alluvion of French rivers. Mention should be made of the memorable feat of the French general, Pichegru, in capturing the frozen up Dutch fleet by bringing his cavalry over the ice. The flight of the

Stadholder, William V., to England brought into existence the Batavian Republic, which with R. J. Schimmelpennick as President acquired a brief notoriety. Louis Bonaparte, as King of Holland, occupied the throne for five years, during which time Napoleon's "Continental System," recoiling upon his own head, brought commercial ruin to Holland. Louis resigned the crown in 1810 and Napoleon incorporated Holland with France. After his crushing defeat at Leipsic, the Dutch, with the help of Russia and Prussia, the allies, and England, swept the French over the border, and peace dawned again over the distressful country after Napoleon's overthrow at Waterloo. The famous Lion Monument on the battlefield is erected over the spot where the Prince of Orange was wounded while leading his Nassau regiment to the charge.

The restoration of the House of Orange resulted in the acceptance of the crown (1813) by William, the son of the exiled Stadholder, and in 1815, by the Vienna treaty, Belgium was added to the kingdom, and the Prince of Orange, under the title of William I. was crowned king of the Netherlands. Dissensions, the result of incompatibility, soon followed between the Dutch and the Belgians, the latter complaining of the assumption of supremacy by the Dutch and furthermore objecting to the compulsory use of Dutch language, replacing Flemish and the official French. Holland, being Protestant and loyally attached to the House of Orange, while Belgium too long subjugated to Spain and France, being anti-Orange and Roman Catholic, separation resulted. In 1830, the European powers, fearing further complications, prevailed upon Holland to accept the severance. After ten years of unrest, the King abdicated and William II. ruled over Holland with the Duchy of Luxembourg added under the Vienna treaty, from 1840 to 1849, when he was succeeded by William III. Princess Emma of Waldeck and Pyrmont (sister of the Duchess of Albany) and consort of William III, acted as regent at her husband's death and during the minority of her daughter, Wil-



The Emperor Charlemagne.



Philip the Good.



Maximilian I.

Martin Tromp
(1597-1653), famous Dutch
Admiral.

The Emperor Charles V.



Count of Hoorn (1520-1568).



Count Egmont (1522-1568).



R. J. Schimmelpennick, onetime
President of the Batavian Re-
public.



The Late Prince Henry of Hol-
land.



Philip II. of Spain.



The Duke of Alva (Fernando Alvarez de Toledo, 1508-1582).



William of Orange, known as William "The Silent."



The Brothers DeWitt.



"*Negotiations with Spain during the Twelve Years' Truce.*" (1609-1621). Allegorical and Satirical Painting (1614) by A. P. Van de Venne, in the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam. (The Catholics and Protestants are competing in the Work of saving Souls.)



The Trial of John V. Oldenbarneveld. Satirical Painting by Cornelius Saftleven, in the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam. (The Jury and Judge Represented as Animals.)

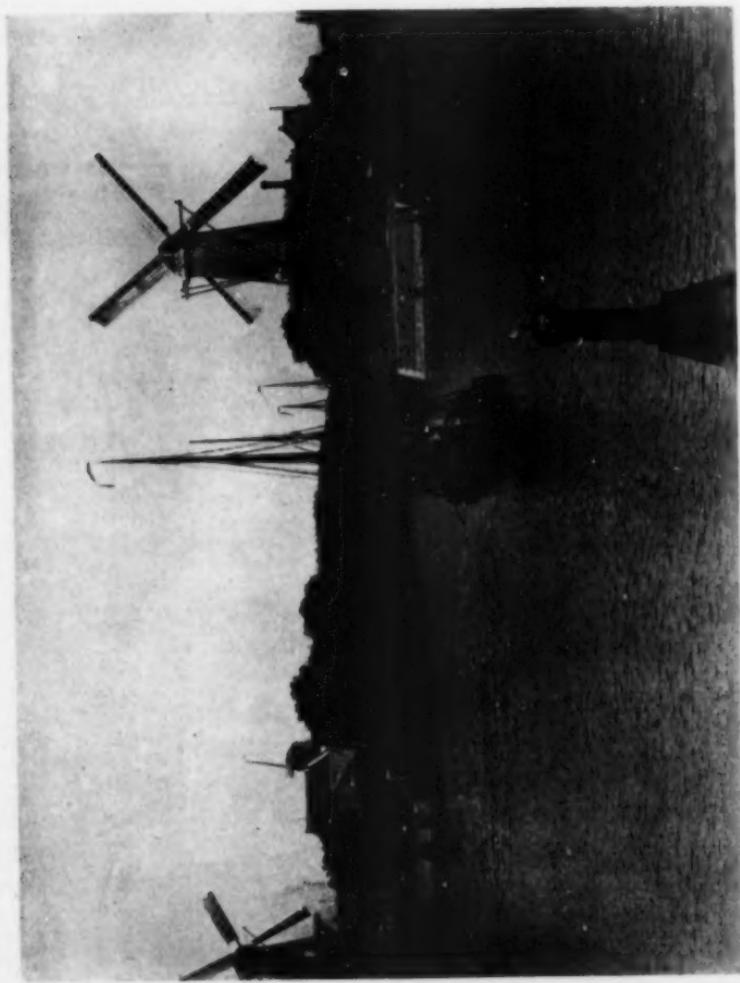
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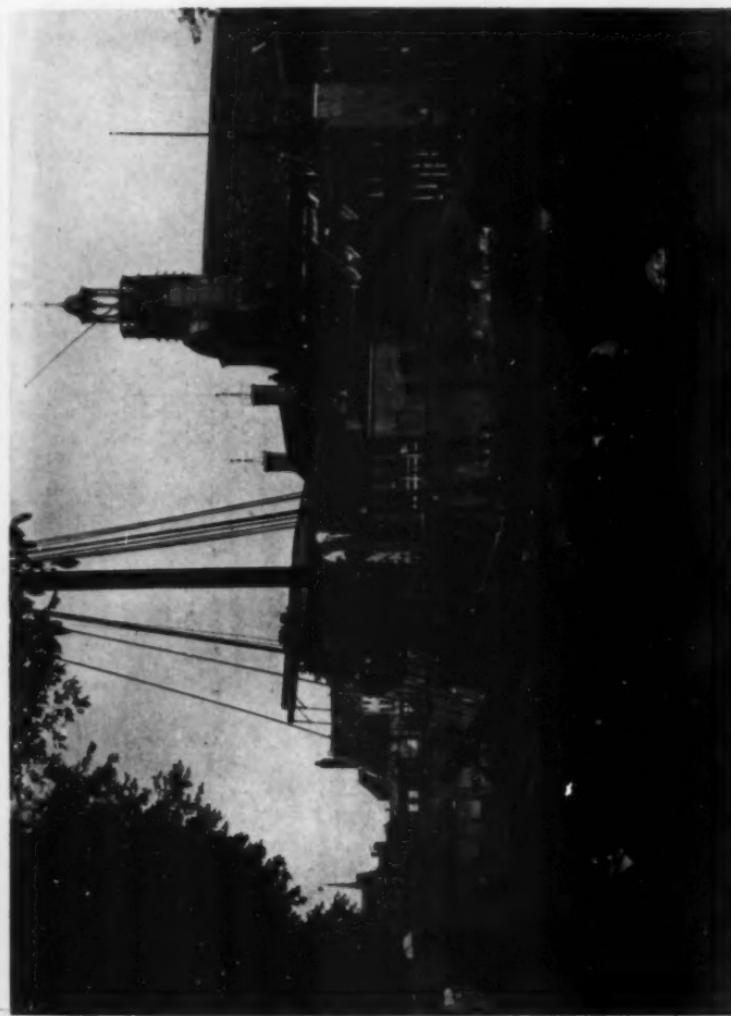
National Monument at The Hague, Commemorating the Dutch Independence Achieved in 1813.



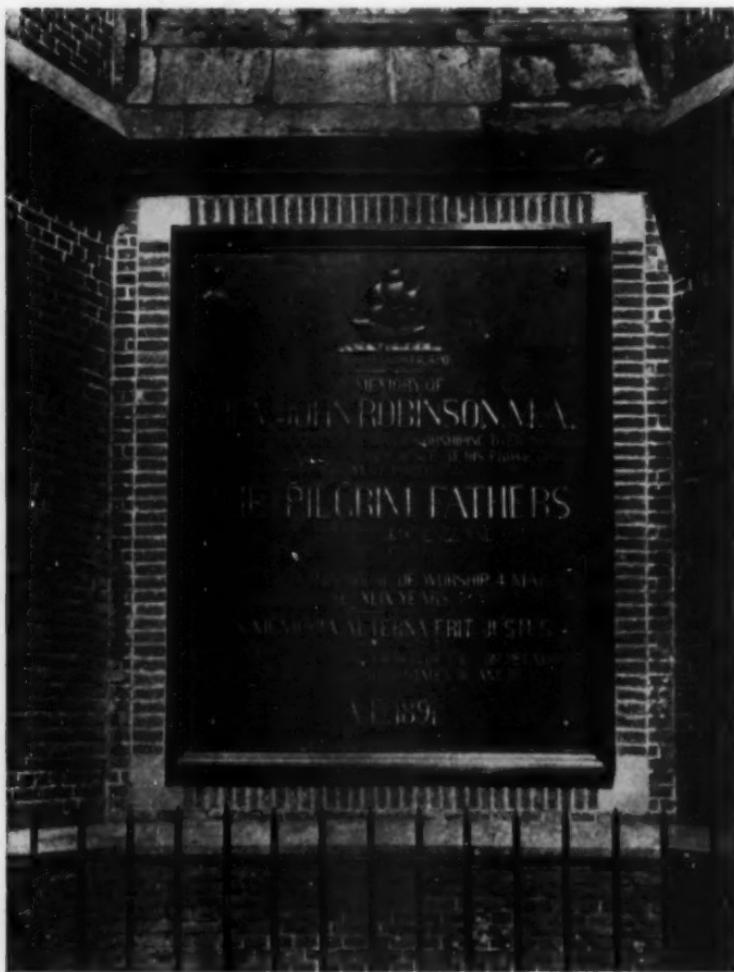
Queen Wilhelmina, the present Ruler of Holland.



Harbor at Delfshaven, Holland, from which the Pilgrim Fathers Set Sail for America, July 22, 1620.



Harbor Scene and Church, Delfshaven, near Rotterdam,



Tablet to the Memory of the Rev. John Robinson, Pastor of the Pilgrim Fathers. In the Church at Leiden, unveiled July, 1891.



House at Leiden in which the Rev. John Robinson, who prompted the Pilgrim Fathers to settle New England, "Lived, Taught and Died"



Interior of Church, Delfshaven, where the Pilgrim Fathers held their last prayer meeting before sailing.

helmina. Her regency is held in affectionate remembrance by the people of Holland. Wilhelmina was born on August 31, 1880, and was crowned in 1898 amid the rejoicings of the entire nation. As Queen she received the homage due to her exalted rank but it is as Princess of Orange and in her lace cap as a Frieslander, descendant of that race of patriots who dedicated their fortunes and themselves to the salvation of Holland that she reigns in the hearts of her devoted subjects. In 1901 her Majesty was married to Henry, Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, on whom she was permitted to confer the title of Prince Henry of the Netherlands. One should note the fact that it was because of her exalted rank she was forced by the laws to propose marriage to the Duke. It has been both urged and denied that it was a love match but as a matter of fact, as far as one may judge, the attitude of the Hollander towards the consort is one of tolerance.

These historical details are really necessary to the proper understanding of the papers which follow as showing the origin of these remarkable people, and the great influence which they have wielded over civilization. Indeed it would surprise some readers to learn that the best of the laws of both Great Britain and America are derived from the Netherlands, and that the two great elements (see "The Puritan in Holland and America," by Douglas Campbell) which have contributed to make America what it is, are: one, the civilization of ancient Rome, with its genius for government and its instinct for justice and equal rights; the other, the strong wild blood of the Germanic race with its passion for individual freedom, which has given its nerve, strength, and energy to modern Europe. The first of these elements was utterly extinguished in England by the Anglo-Saxon conquest, while the feudal system, afterwards came in to rob the Germanic conquerors of many of their early ideas regarding civil liberty. One country alone, Holland, was largely free from this devastation and this blight. There the civilization of Rome was never extinguished, and the

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feudal system took but feeble root. The people preserved more purely than any others their Germanic ideas and institutions but engrafted on them the arts, the learning, and the laws derived from communication with civilized and civilizing Italy. To the patriot, to the lover of civil and religious liberty, as well to the student of art and science in any land, the history of this Republic and country, must always have a peculiar charm. But, apart from its general features, this history is so interwoven with that of England and America that anyone concerned with the past of either of these countries will find it a subject of unfailing interest. When modern Englishmen set out to write the history of their country, they cross the channel and describe the Angles and the Saxons in their early home upon the continent. That home was so near to the Netherlands that the people of Holland and the conquerors of Britain spoke substantially the same language, and were almost of one blood. To the Englishman, thinking only of the greatness of his own land, this original relationship may seem sufficient honor for a tiny fragment of the earth's surface not as large as Switzerland, but it is only the first chapter of the story. For hundreds of years in later times, and until long after the settlement of America, the Netherlands stood as the guide and instructor of England in almost everything which has made her materially great. When the Reformation came, in which northwestern Europe was new born, it was the Netherlands which led the van, and for eighty years waged the war which disenthralled the souls of men. Out of that conflict, shared by thousands of heroic Englishmen, but in which England as a nation hardly had a place, Puritanism was evolved—the Puritanism which gave its triumph to the Netherland Republic, and has shaped the character of the English-speaking race.

In time, England came to hate the benefactor to whom she owed so much; thus after the Restoration of the Stuarts, and still more after the Tory reaction which followed the Revolution of 1688, the political writers about the court

habitually ridiculed the Dutchmen for virtues which they could not understand (see Roger's "Story of Holland").

The Republican Hollander deemed the attentions of king or noble to his wife or daughter a disgrace. The courtiers about Charles II viewed this subject differently and regarded the Dutchman as ill-mannered for his want of taste. Added to this was the Hollander's respect for the private rights of all classes; his devotion to art and learning; his love of fair dealing in personal and in public matters; his industry, frugality; and, finally, his universal toleration. No one could deny the Dutchman's courage, for they were among the boldest soldiers and sailors that the world has ever seen; but they were not gentlemen from the aristocratic point of view. Sir William Temple, one of the most elegant and accomplished gentlemen, at the court of Charles II, being sent as ambassador to the Hague, related some of his experiences, among others the following, which illustrates the authority of woman in Holland. Dining one day with the chief burgomaster of Amsterdam and having a severe cold, he noticed that every time he spat on the floor while at table a tight handsome wench who stood in a corner holding a cloth, got down on her knees and wiped it up. Seeing this, he turned to his host and apologized for the trouble which he gave, receiving the jocular response, "It is well for you that my wife is not at home, for she would have turned you out of the house for soiling her floor, although you are the English ambassador." ("The Puritan in Holland, England and America," by Douglas Campbell.)

For art, for science, and deep scholarship, no other country could be compared with Holland in her palmy days. But Holland owed preëminence in these departments, not to an aristocracy, nor even to a monied class whose inherited wealth led them to abstain from business. The men who sustained her painters and musicians, who fostered science and broad learning, were the plain burghers, merchants, and manufacturers in the cities, men whom Queen Elizabeth called "base mechanics," who worked themselves,

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and by example or by precept taught that labor alone is honorable.

James Geddes in his "John De Witt" relates an incident which will show how mathematics were cultivated in the Netherlands. In 1617, a young French soldier, serving in the Dutch army, was passing through the streets of Breda. A crowd was gathered on the corner and he pushed forward to learn the cause of the excitement. Its members were all studying a paper, posted on the wall, and talking about its contents. Not understanding the language, he asked a by-stander to translate it into French or Latin. The paper contained an abstruse mathematical problem, which in this way had been submitted to the public for solution. The soldier obtained his translation, went to his quarters, and a few days later sent in the correct answer, signed "Descartes." This was the introduction to the world of the greatest philosopher and mathematician of the age, whose transcendent ability was at once recognized in Holland.

The Hollander has ever been incorruptible. Never in war or peace, though Spain was lavish of promises and a master of corruption, was native Hollander bought with gold. When in 1608 the Spanish ambassadors were on their way to negotiate a treaty at the Hague, they saw eight or ten persons land from a little boat, and sitting down on the grass, make a meal of bread, cheese, and beer. "Who are these travelers?" said the Spaniards to the peasant. "They are the deputies from the State," he answered, "our sovereign lords and masters." "Then we must make peace," they cried; "these are not men to be conquered."

It was Holland, also, which carefully and wisely encouraged and maintained the freedom of trade, as may be seen from an incident which occurred so far back as the reign of Edward I of England. That monarch, in a letter addressed to Robert, Earl of Flanders, states that he has learned of an active intercourse carried on between the Scotch and the Flemings; and as the former had taken

part with Robert Bruce, who was in rebellion against him and excommunicated by the Pope, he begged that the Earl would put a stop to this intercourse and exclude the Scotch from his dominion. The Earl's answer was full of respect for the English king whom he desired to please, but he said frankly, as to the main question: "We must not conceal it from your Majesty that our country of Flanders is open to all the world, where every person finds a free admission. Nor can we take away this privilege from persons concerned in commerce without bringing ruin and destruction upon our country. If the Scotch go to our ports and our subjects go to theirs, it is neither the intention of ourselves or our subjects to encourage them in their error, but only to carry on our traffic without taking any part with them." This was always the policy of the Netherland States and the Dutch Republic.

In an article on Leiden University by Prof. W. T. Hewett in *Harper's Magazine* for March, 1881, Prof. Hewett himself, a student at this famous university, in common with every intelligent observer who has lived in Holland, was much struck with the similarity between the Dutch and the American modes of thought. He says, "The Dutch mind is more like the American in its method of thought than is that of any other nation of the continent. There is the same intensity of feeling on all religious questions, the same keen practical genius. The purpose of the Hollander is direct. The Hollander understands American and republican institutions, and their true foundations in the intelligence and self-control of the people. I have always felt sure of being understood when speaking with an educated Hollander, whether discussing church and state or our political questions. He could rightly estimate the real and unreal dangers which attend democratic governments, as our English cousins are not always in the habit of doing."

We view with just pride our charitable institutions, our soldiers' homes, our orphan asylums, and our great and mag-

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nificantly endowed hospitals, but we should not forget that in all this great and noble work, republican Holland set us the example three centuries ago.

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I. Frans Hals and the Portrait.

By George Breed Zug

Assistant Professor in the History of Art, University of Chicago.

WHEN compared with Italian painting and its numerous artists of the fourteenth, and even thirteenth century, Dutch painting seems distinctly modern. For it is not until the seventeenth century that we find a real, genuine Dutch art in the history of painting. Artists of Dutch birth had existed in the two preceding centuries, but they were, to judge from their few remaining works, not different from the artists of neighboring Flanders. All, Dutch and Flemish alike, seem to have been painting religious subjects,—the Roman Catholic church has always been a liberal patron of artists,—in a miniature-like way, with very small strokes of the brush and a thin layer of paint, with great timidity in drawing the human body, and with an overabundance of details. But all of this changes rapidly after the Peace of Utrecht in 1579 with its religious and political freedom for the seven Northern Provinces. And now that Holland, a free and Protestant nation, was born, there could and did arise at once a national, a Dutch art wholly distinct from Flemish art. The Flemings are temperamentally inclined toward the French in sprightliness, and in imaginativeness, the Dutch, phlegmatic and serious, are more like the Germans. The Flemings remained Roman Catholic and continued to paint large altar pieces with a wealth of color and movement and invention. The Dutch, in whose churches such productions dared no longer find a place, derived their delight from the artistic treatment of themselves and their

daily life. And as a result no country has produced such a body of paintings showing in an intimate way the very life of its people at work and at play. Even the religious picture, so far as it remained became domesticated, became a part of the house furnishings. This seventeenth century Dutch school of painting is, after that of Italy, the greatest of history. For more than a generation before Frans Hals there were scores of distinguished artists working successfully in the various cities of Holland. Some historians of art history treat the subject of Dutch painting by cities. There seems, however, a special advantage in discussing the paintings of this period by subjects treating the portrait as represented by Hals and his contemporaries, then the painters of domestic scenes, of landscapes, and of animals. This plan will be followed in this series of articles.

A portrait painter of today is inclined to assert that portrait painting is the most difficult of the arts. Whereas each branch of art is difficult for the conscientious artist, let us see what are the special problems of the portraitist. Of course the artist's aim is always to create something beautiful, therefore a painter of madonnas and saints, as well as the painter of domestic scenes and of animals, must so select and arrange his materials that the result will be a harmonious and beautiful unity. The great Italians brought this unity about chiefly by line and pattern, the Dutch painters chiefly by light and by shade. A portrait then should not only represent the outline of the person's features, but the head, the body, the arms, and the legs should be so arranged within the limits of the frame that beauty results.

The earlier portraitists in Italy and in the Low Countries made their problem as simple as possible. At first they introduced only the head and shoulders. Later they added the hands as an aid in the interpretation of character. Whole generations later they turned the head or the body to give variety, and, lastly they introduced accessories which threw, as it were, a sidelight on the character of the sitter by suggesting his occupation. The merchant, pen in hand, sits



Statue of Frans Hals (1584-1666), in Haarlem.

before his ledger ; the tailor with his shears is about to cut the cloth spread out on his table ; the money lender has his scales and his money bags beside him.

Paul Moreelse, the painter of the beautiful little princess of our frontispiece, is taken as representative of the host of distinguished portraitists who came just before Hals. Moreelse was born in Utrecht in 1571 ; he was a pupil of Mierevelt of Delft, but after his apprenticeship he returned to his native city where he was busily occupied the rest of his life. His princess is typical of the precise workmanship of the best masters of the period. A word may here be said as to the way in which these masters look at their subjects. When about to paint a portrait they select and arrange their material as all artists must, but they seem to let their eyes wander from head to foot of the sitter in order to then reproduce each detail with almost precision. What could be better than the careful rendering of the lace collar and cuffs, and the gold chain of the princess ? For that kind of painting nothing could be more skilful. It was in this sort of painting that that greater master of Germany, Hans Holbein, expressed his way of seeing nature. But this multiplication of detail is as primitive a way of representing a person as the careful drawing of ten thousand leaves is a primitive way of representing foliage. For ten thousand leaves do not necessarily make a tree. These early painters painted not according to appearances but according to knowledge. Moreelse by careful observation was able to see all these details of costume one at a time and to reproduce them all together. When we look at a person, however, we are not conscious of all the buttons on a dress or all the links in a chain ; we look at the face, and such details of costume are all but lost in the corner of the eye.

Frans Hals was perhaps the first painter who painted not according to the way he knew that the sitter looked, but in the way he appeared to the eye and to the mind. Better than anyone before him he treated his portraits in a large way. He left out small distracting details and focussed



"The Laughing Cavalier." By Frans Hals. In the Wallace Collection, London.



"Nurse and Child." By Frans Hals. In the Berlin Museum.
Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Co., New York.



"The Gipsy Girl." By Frans Hals. In the Louvre.
Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Co., New York.



"Portrait of a Man." By Frans Hals. In the Collection of Mr.
Charles L. Hutchinson, Chicago.



"The Serenade." By Judith Leyster. In the Six Collection, Amsterdam.



"St. Joris Shooting Company." 1627. By Frans Hals. In the Town Hall, Haarlem.



"Officers of St. Adriaen's Shooting Guild," 1633. By Frans Hals. In the Town Hall, Haarlem.



"The Drinker." By Judith Leyster. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.

attention on the face and the pose of his subject. This new, "broad" manner of seeing was, then, carried further by Rembrandt and the great Spanish painter, Velasquez. But Hals deserves the credit of first discovering and applying it to portraiture. Hals is often called the first of the moderns, for many of the leading artists of today paint in this "broad" manner. Hals' way of painting differs also from that of his predecessors. They put on the paint with such delicate care that the surface is smooth and somewhat lacking in expression. You cannot see the brush strokes of Moreelse or of Holbein. Hals, on the other hand, puts the paint on the canvas in broad and lengthy strokes which looked at near at hand seem confusing, but which are effective at a distance. It is in just this mastery of the brush that Hals has never had a superior. As Mr. Kenyon Cox* suggests it is not merely the length and breadth of Hals' brush strokes which is remarkable, it is his skill and precision in making them of just such size and shape, of just such color and tone that when you stand away from his canvas you get the very impression of nature, the texture of lace or of satin, of skin or of hair, and this with a lifelikeness which is unexcelled.

This lifelikeness is important in a portrait. How many figures in pictures which we see seem posed and stiff, and without life. But the people in the pictures by Hals seem to be caught in the act of living. They are animated, breathing beings. There is a vitality about the people who look out of his paintings. Another point to be observed in portraits is the composition,—how much of the figure is placed upon the canvas and how well it occupies its place. It is also to be noticed whether the artist has succeeded in producing a personality with an individual character, and whether he has made eyes, mouth, hands, dress and accessories interpret the character of his subject.

Frans Hals was born of Dutch parents in Antwerp about 1580. He probably received only an elementary education

*Essay on Hals in "Old Masters and New."

in that city, for early in his life his parents removed to Haarlem where the boy Frans was placed in the art academy of Van Mander. Mr. Davies in his book on Hals, hazards some clever guesses as to the early training of our master, but the fact is that we know nothing certainly of the beginnings of his career. There is next to nothing to be learned either from manuscripts or pictures until the year 1616, the date of his first important picture, the banquet of the Saint Joris (Saint George) Shooting Guild. This painting proclaims its author to be a past master of the art of painting. We cannot, therefore, trace the beginning of his style in early works which resemble those of his master, as we can do, for instance, with Raphael and his master Perugino. But from 1616 until 1664, the date of his latest pictures, Hals seems to have been busily occupied in his profession, and at times an officer in certain associations. These two facts offer a sufficient refutation of the charge that Hals was an habitual drunkard, a mere sot. Surely two things which were necessary to the production of his works were clearness of vision and sureness of hand, and these could not be retained by an habitual drunkard. Hals may not always have lived wisely for he spent his last days in poverty, receiving a pittance from the city, and died in 1664. But although his poverty may have been in part of his own causing, it was not entirely so; for his art was too good for his time; masterly as it was it seems not to have been popular from the year 1645 onward.

The portrait of the officer, commonly called "The Laughing Cavalier," which is here reproduced, was apparently painted about 1624 when the master was at the height of his success. The careful painting of the lace ruff, the precision in the rendering of the details of the clothing, together with the lack of atmospheric effect show that the picture is comparatively early in the artist's career, and before he attained the broad manner of seeing and of rendering which mark his later art. Though the color is not strong, the embroidery being in low-toned orange-yellow

on a blue-grey cloth, it leaves a memory of brighter color. This no doubt is partly due to the want of atmosphere. These remarks are not intended to lessen the enjoyment of the beauty of the work, but only to place it in the master's career, for what could be better as an interpretation! How abounding in life is this healthy young officer, how expressive is his pose, and how bewitching his smile!

Another painting which shows his skill in catching the passing mood of his subject is the "Nurse and Child." The proud look of the peasant nurse, the transparent shadows on her face, and the skilful placing of her figure behind that of her charge are all as happy in their way as the pleased expression of the child, and the delicate painting of her cap, collar, and stomacher. The loving care displayed in the painting of this lace and of the golden olive brocade of the child's dress is again characteristic of Hals' early period.

Slightly broader in treatment but of about the same period is the painting of "The Gipsy Girl." Here the artist transfers to canvas not the suggestion of a smile, but the smile itself,—one is almost tempted to say the laugh. With this gay mood, the white linen, the salmon of the bodice, and the rosy tints of the face are in perfect accord. This delightful picture is one of the best of a whole group for which Hals is famous; pictures which might be called portrait studies or fancy portraits, in which he interprets the gay spirits of laughing girls, of fish-wives, of jesters, and of tipplers. Such paintings border closely on genre paintings (paintings of domestic scenes), and yet they remain portraits. They seem also to be sympathetic subjects to the rollicking, happy-go-lucky temperament of the jovial Hals.

But Hals does not confine himself to the painting of mere externals and the interpretation of passing moods. Though it must be acknowledged that he does not sound the depths of character in the profound manner of Rembrandt, still he has left some portraits of men and of women in serious-mood, portraits which seem to reflect the better and deeper side of his subject's character. Some of these

are life-size, while others are only a few inches in height, like the little Portrait of a Man owned by Mr. Charles L. Hutchinson. This man may not be a philosopher, he may not be a searcher of souls, but he is adequately represented in serious mood. Here may be seen some of our painter's best qualities; his broad manner even in small compass, a vital pose, and his skill in catching a likeness. One often doubts whether the people in Rembrandt's portraits really looked as they are represented. It is known that Rembrandt frequently dressed his sitters in strange costume and adapted their features according to his fancy. Not so with Hals; he is always a realist, he seems always to represent the very man in his habit as he lived.

In order to understand the dash and brilliancy of Hals as a painter of single portraits, one need only study his works in several public and private galleries in America; but to appreciate him as the master of large portrait groups, to understand him at his full worth one must cross the ocean and visit Haarlem. The Museum of that city possesses eight large pictures, of which five represent gatherings of the great shooting guilds, while three represent the governing bodies of public charities. The figures in these groups are all life-size and range in number from five to nineteen. These large canvasses varying in length from eight to thirteen feet, well lighted and placed at a convenient height for study, represent almost fifty years of the artist's activity. Arranged as they are in chronological order one can compare the ruddy color and sharp outlines of this first picture of 1616 with the broader treatment and blending tones of the later canvasses. Nor are these great groups mere transcripts of nature, but works of art abounding in the astonishing skill and mastery of one of the greatest of painters. These shooting companies were bodies of citizens associated for purposes of defence, a kind of militia, which did excellent service in the last forty years of the war with Spain. They frequently marched out together, they as frequently dined

thoroughly and well, and what is of particular interest to-day, the officers sometimes had their pictures painted in life-sized groups and placed in their halls of meeting. It seems that such corporation pieces were not paid for from the general fund but from the individual purse. Hence, each having paid his share, each expected equal representation. How skilfully Hals met this requirement in the arrangement of his groups! While he places each head where it can be seen plainly he arranges the whole so naturally that the spectator catches at once something of the all-pervading spirit of the good time.

In the Saint Joris group of 1627, here reproduced, he has placed two seated figures forming a group with a standing figure at the left, and has connected this with the larger group at the right by means of the ensign wth the folded flag. Here Hals has reached his accomplished style. The white ruffs, the sashes of tawny orange, red, or blue, and the fresh complexions of the men form a harmony indeed. Here too is masterly painting of black stuffs, and an atmospheric effect that aids the impression of reality. In the "Officers of Saint Adriaen's Guild," 1633, there is still more gorgeous painting of the sashes, still broader handling, and better feeling for form. Here, as always, Hals paints the hands admirably, hands which help to interpret the sitter.

Hals then, to repeat, was one of the first to paint so broadly as to give the very impression of nature. He defines form by masses of color rather than by lines, with a mastery of brush that has not been excelled, and he is one of the great colorists of the Dutch school. He excels also in such minor matters as the painting of rich blacks, in expressive gestures, and life-like poses. He has well been called the "Laureate of Laughter." As Mr. Davis says, Hals excels in depicting such obvious emotions as those "of laughter, amusement, surprise, conceit and swagger." He is not such a soul-searching portraitist as was Rembrandt, but a painter of the passing mood. For the dash-

ing portrait of external impression by means of an equally dashing technique, Hals remains unexcelled.

A story is told of a visit paid to Hals by Van Dyck. The latter was then twenty-two, Hals nineteen years his senior. As a pleasantry Van Dyck suppressed his name, announcing himself as a wealthy stranger who wished to sit for his portrait, but who had only a couple of hours to spare. Hals fell to with his usual impetuosity, and completed a portrait for the sitter's inspection in even less than the limited time, much to the satisfaction of the latter, who expressed an astonishment not altogether feigned at the speed of its execution. "Surely," said he, "painting is an easier thing than I thought. Suppose we change places and see what I can do." The exchange was made. Hals instantly detected that the person before him was no stranger to the brush. He speculated in vain as to who he might be. But when the second portrait was finished in still less time than in the first, the mystery was solved. Rushing to his guest, he clasped him in a fraternal embrace. "The man who can do that," he cried, "must be either Van Dyck or the devil!"—(From Timothy Cole's "Old Dutch and Flemish Masters.")

Of all his followers the one who came nearest to him in method and in spirit was a woman who has been called the most gifted woman painter of the whole Dutch school,—Judith Leyster. She has been recently recalled from oblivion by the researches of Hofstede de Groot. No documentary evidence of her ever having been Hals' pupil has yet been discovered, yet until 1893 her works were bought and sold as those of Hals. Her signature, a combination of the letter J and a star,—Leyster meaning lode-star, had been mistaken for Hals' cypher. She is known to have lived from about 1600-1660 at Haarlem and at Amsterdam. In the former city she was admitted to membership in the Guild of Saint Luke in 1633, and in 1638 she married the artist Jan Miense Molenaer. Her earliest known work is "The Drinker," dated 1629. It seems no great wonder that it

was long mistaken for a Hals, so much in his spirit was the young man transferred to the canvas, but the colors are brighter and not blended as fully as with Hals. "The Drinker," who smiles happily out at the beholder, is clad in a grey coat with red corded seams, and a black hat from which hangs a long red plume. A picture very similar to this one of the Rijks Museum in Amsterdam is now in the Kaiser Friedrich Museum at Berlin, but it is not so big in feeling nor in treatment. In "The Serenade" of the Six Gallery at Amsterdam the color scheme is still brighter and the use of light and shade is more pronounced. The doublet is black and green with white slashes, the trunk-hose red and black, and the mantle grey. Although akin to Hals in certain of his moods she developed a style of her own, so that she was not only twice celebrated in the rhyming chronicles of Haarlem in the first half of the seventeenth century, but a critic of today has said of her that she is "one of the few women who have done a man's work."

GENERAL BIBLIOGRAPHY WITH SPECIAL REFERENCES ALSO ON HALS.

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ARMSTRONG, SIR WALTER. The Peel Collection and the Dutch School of Painting. Illustrated. \$2.00 net. One of the best books of criticism for Dutch landscape and genre painting.

KUGLER. German, Flemish, and Dutch Schools of Painting. Sir J. A. Crowe, Editor. 2 vols. \$9.00. Murray, 1898. For many years a standard art history now antiquated but useful for its general classifications. The two best books in French and German are: Havard, Henry: *Histoire de la Peinture Hollandaise*; and Phillippe, A.: *Die Blüte der Malerei in Holland*.

Excellent art criticism will be found in the following:

COX, KENYON. Old Masters and New. \$1.50. Also illustrated edition, \$2.50.

FROMENTIN, E. The Old Masters of Belgium and Holland. \$3.00. Translated by Mary Robbins from "*Les Maîtres d'Autrefois*." Paris, 1902. "Has done more than any other book to teach the intelligent public of Europe and America what the art of painting really means."—G. Baldwin Brown.

VAN DVKE, JOHN C. Old Dutch and Flemish Masters engraved by Timothy Cole. Good essays on Hals and others.

DAVIES, GERALD, S. Frans Hals (Great masters in painting

and sculpture series). 1904. Small edition \$1.75. This is the best life of Hals.

DAVIES, GERALD S. Frans Hals. 1902. Large edition with added text and illustrations. \$14.

In the Metropolitan Museum New York, Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, and Art Institute, Chicago, may be seen original examples of the work of Hals.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

It is essential in the study of art to use illustrations. The prints published by The Bureau of University Travel, Trinity Place, Boston, afford a cheap method of illustration. There are 170 small prints of Dutch paintings. Price 80 cents per hundred. No text accompanies these prints.

The monthly publication entitled *Masters in Art* is also recommended. Each number contains ten plates with comments by well known critics and bibliography. The following Dutch painters have been treated: Rembrandt, Frans Hals, Ter Borch, Pieter de Hooch, Paul Potter, Gerard Dou, Vermeer of Delft, Jan Steen, Metsu, Ruisdael. Price 20 cents each. Address Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y.

REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS UPON THE REQUIRED READINGS
WILL BE FOUND IN THE ROUND TABLE SECTION AT THE BACK OF THIS
MAGAZINE.

(*End of October Required Reading, pages 18-84.*)



Assassination of William the Silent

[The following excerpts, taken from Motley's "Rise of the Dutch Republic," afford a graphic picture of the murder of William the Silent, Prince of Orange, in 1584. Balthazar, the murderer, had for seven years planned the murder of the Prince, prompted to his deed by large offers of reward from the Spaniards. How he accomplished his purpose is here set forth, together with a careful character study of the great man who freed Holland from the foreign yoke, William of Orange, one of the greatest patriots of history.]

It was Sunday morning and the bells were tolling for church. Upon leaving the house he [Balthazar] loitered about the courtyard, furtively examining the premises, so that a sergeant of halberdiers asked him why he was waiting there. Balthazar meekly replied that he was desirous of attending divine worship in the church opposite, but added, pointing to his shabby and travel-stained attire, that, without at least a new pair of shoes and stockings, he was unfit to join the congregation. Insignificant as ever, the small, pious, dusty stranger excited no suspicion in the mind of the good natured sergeant. He forthwith spoke of the wants of Gérard to an officer, by whom they were communicated to Orange himself, and the Prince instantly ordered a sum of money to be given him. Thus Balthazar obtained from William's charity what Parma's thrift had denied—a fund for carrying out his purpose!

Next morning, with the money thus procured he purchased a pair of pistols, or small carabines, from a soldier, chaffering long about the price because the vender could not supply a particular kind of chopped bullets or slugs which he desired. Before the sunset of the following day that soldier had stabbed himself to the heart, and died despairing, on hearing for what purpose the pistols had been bought.



On Tuesday, the 10th of July, 1584, at about half-past twelve, the Prince, with his wife on his arm, and followed by the ladies and gentlemen of his family, was going to the dining room. William the Silent was dressed upon that day, according to his usual custom, in very plain fashion. He wore a wide-leaved, loosely-shaped hat of dark felt, with a silken cord round the crown—such as had been worn by the Beggars in the early days of the revolt. A high ruff encircled his neck, from which also depended one of the Beggar's medals, with the motto, "*Fidèles au roy jusqu'a la besace,*" while a loose surcoat of grey frieze cloth, over a tawny leather doublet, with wide, slashed underclothes completed his costume. Gérard presented himself at the doorway and demanded a passport. The Princess, struck with the pale and agitated countenance of the man, anxiously questioned her husband concerning the stranger. The Prince carelessly observed that "it was merely a person who came for a passport," ordering, at the same time, a secretary forthwith to prepare one. The Princess, still not relieved, observed in an undertone that "she had never seen so villainous a countenance." Orange, however, not at all impressed with the appearance of Gérard, conducted himself at table with his usual cheerfulness, conversing much with the burgomaster of Leewarden, the only guest present at the family dinner, concerning the political and religious aspects of Friesland. At two o'clock the company rose from the table. The Prince led the way, intending to pass to his private apartments above. The dining-room, which was on the ground floor, opened into a little square vestibule, which communicated, through an arched passageway, with the main entrance into the court-yard. This vestibule was also directly at the foot of the wooden staircase leading to the next floor, and was scarcely six feet in width. Upon its left side, as one approached the stairway, was an obscure arch, sunk deep in the wall and completely in the shadow of the door. Behind this arch a portal opened to the narrow lane at the side of the house. The stairs themselves were com-

pletely lighted by a large window, half way up the flight. The Prince came from the dining room, and began leisurely to ascend. He had only reached the second stair when a man emerged from the sunken arch, and, standing within a foot or two of him, discharged a pistol full at his heart. Three balls entered the body, one of which, passing quite through him, struck with violence against the wall beyond. The Prince exclaimed in French, as he felt the wound, "O my God, have mercy upon my soul! O my God, have mercy upon this poor people!"

These were the last words he ever spoke, save that when his sister, Catherine of Schwartzburg, immediately afterwards asked him if he commanded his soul to Jesus Christ, he faintly answered "Yes." His master of the horse, Jacob van Maldere, had caught him in his arms as the fatal shot was fired. The Prince was then placed on the stairs for an instant, when he immediately began to swoon. He was afterward laid upon a couch in the dining room, where in a few minutes he breathed his last in the arms of his wife and sister.

The murderer succeeded in making his escape through the side door, and sped swiftly up the narrow lane. He had almost reached the ramparts, from which he intended to spring into the moat, when he stumbled over a heap of rubbish. As he rose, he was seized by several pages and halberdiers, who had pursued him from the house. He had dropped his pistols upon the spot where he had committed the crime, and upon his person were found a couple of bladders provided with a piece of pipe with which he had intended to assist himself across the moat, beyond which a horse was waiting for him. He made no effort to deny his identity, but boldly avowed himself and his deed. He was brought back to the house, where he immediately underwent a preliminary examination before the city magistrates. He was afterwards subjected to excruciating tortures; for the fury against the wretch who had destroyed the Father of the country was uncontrollable, and William the Silent was

no longer alive to intercede,—as he had often done before—in behalf of those who had assailed his life.

The organization of Balthazar Gérard would furnish a subject of profound study, both for the physiologist and the metaphysician. Neither wholly a fanatic, nor entirely a ruffian, he combined the most dangerous elements of both characters. In his puny body the mean exterior enclosed considerable mental powers and accomplishments, a daring ambition, and a courage almost superhuman. Yet those qualities led him only to form upon the threshold of life a deliberate determination to achieve greatness by the assassin's trade. The rewards held out by the Ban, combining with his religious bigotry and his passion for distinction, fixed all his energies with patient concentration upon the one great purpose for which he seemed to have been born, and after seven years' preparation, he had at last fulfilled his design.

Upon being interrogated by the magistrate, he manifested neither despair nor contrition, but rather a quiet exultation. "Like David," he said, "he had slain Goliath of Gath." When falsely informed that his victim was not dead, he showed no credulity or disappointment. He had discharged three poisoned balls into the Prince's stomach, and he knew that death must have already ensued. He expressed regret, however, that the resistance of the halberdiers had prevented him from using his second pistol, and avowed that if he were a thousand leagues away he would return in order to do the deed again, if possible. He deliberately wrote a detailed confession of his crime, and of the motives and manner of its commission, taking care, however, not to implicate Parma in the transaction. After sustaining day after day the most horrible tortures, he subsequently related his interviews with Assonleville and with the president of the Jesuit college at Tréves, adding that he had been influenced in his work by the assurance of obtaining the rewards promised by the Ban. During the intervals of repose from the rack he conversed with ease, and even eloquence, answer-

ing all questions addressd to him with apparent sincerity. His constancy in suffering so astonished his judges that they believed him supported by witchcraft. "Ecce homo!" he exclaimed from time to time, with insane blasphemy, as he raised his blood-streaming head from the bench. In order to destroy the charm which seemed to render him insensible to pain, they sent for the shirt of a hospital patient supposed to be a sorcerer. When clothed in this garment, however, Balthazar was none the less superior to the arts of the tormentors, enduring all their inflictions, according to an eye-witness, "without once exclaiming, Ah me!" and avowing that he would repeat his enterprise, if possible, were he to die a thousand deaths in consequence. Some of those present refused to believe that he was a man at all. Others asked him how long since he had sold himself to the Devil? to which he replied, mildly, that he had no acquaintance whatever with the Devil. He thanked the judges politely for the food which he received in prison and promised to recompense them for the favor. Upon being asked how that was possible, he replied, that he would serve as their advocate in Paradise.

The sentence pronounced again the assassin was execrable—a crime against the memory of the great man whom it professed to avenge. It was decreed that the right hand of Gérard should be burned off with a red-hot iron, that his flesh should be torn from his bones with pinchers in six different places, that he should be quartered and disemboweled alive, that his heart should be torn from his bosom and flung in his face, and, that, finally, his head should be taken off. Not even this horrible crime, with its endless consequences, nor the natural frenzy of indignation which it had excited, could justify this savage decree, to rebuke which the murdered hero might almost have risen from the sleep of death. The sentence was literally executed on the 14th of July, the criminal supporting its horrors with the same astonishing fortitude. So calm were his nerves, crippled and half roasted as he was ere he mounted the scaffold, that when

one of the executioners was slightly injured in the ear by the flying from the handle of the hammer with which he was breaking the fatal pistol in pieces, as the first step in the execution—a circumstance which produced a general laugh in the crowd—a smile was observed upon Balthazar's face in sympathy with the general hilarity. His lips were seen to move up to the moment when his heart was thrown in his face—"Then," said a looker-on "he gave up the ghost."

The reward promised by Philip to the man who should murder Orange was paid to the heirs of Gérard. Parma informed his sovereign that the "poor man" had been executed, but that his father and mother were still living, to whom he recommended the payment of that "merced" which "the laudable and generous deed had so well deserved." This was accordingly done, and the excellent parents, ennobled and enriched by the crime of their son, received instead of the twenty-five thousand crowns promised in the Ban, the three seignories of Lievremont, Hostal, and Dampmartin, in the Franche Comté, and took their place at once among the landed aristocracy. Thus the bounty of the Prince had furnished the weapon by which his life was destroyed, and his estates supplied the fund out of which the assassin's family received the price of blood. At a later day, when the unfortunate eldest son of Orange returned from Spain after twenty-seven years' absence, a changeling and a Spaniard, the restoration of those very estates was offered to him by Philip the Second, provided he would continue to pay a fixed proportion of their rents to the family of his father's murderer. The education which Philip William had received, under the King's auspices, had, however, not entirely destroyed all his human feelings, and he rejected the proposal with scorn. The estates remained with the Gérard family, and the patents of nobility which they had received were used to justify their exemption from certain taxes, until the union of Franche Comté, with France,

when a French governor tore the documents in pieces and trampled them under foot.

Characteristics of the Prince of Orange

In person, Orange was above the middle height, perfectly well made and sinewy, but rather spare than stout. His eyes, hair, beard, and complexion were brown. His head was small, symmetrically-shaped, combining the alertness and compactness characteristic of the soldier, with the capacious brow furrowed prematurely with the horizontal lines of thought, denoting the statesman and the sage. His physical appearance was, therefore, in harmony with his organization which was of antique model. Of his moral qualities, the most prominent was his piety. He was more than anything else a religious man. From his trust in God, he ever derived support and consolation in the darkest hours. Implicitly relying upon Almighty wisdom and goodness, he looked danger in the face with a constant smile, and endured incessant labors and trials with a serenity which seemed more than human. While, however, his soul was full of piety, it was tolerant of error. Sincerely and deliberately himself a convert to the Reformed Church, he was ready to extend freedom of worship to Catholics on the one hand, and to Anabaptists on the other, for no man ever felt more keenly than he, that the Reformer who becomes in his turn a bigot is doubly odious.

His firmness was allied to his piety. His constancy in bearing the whole weight of a struggle as unequal as men have ever undertaken, was the theme of admiration even to his enemies. The rock in the ocean, "tranquil amid raging billows," was the favorite emblem by which his friends expressed their sense of his firmness. From the time when, as a hostage in France, he first discovered the plan of Philip to plant the Inquisition in the Netherlands, up to the last moment of his life, he never faltered in his determination to resist that iniquitous scheme. This resistance was the labor of his life. To exclude the Inquisition, to maintain

the ancient liberties of his country, was the task which he appointed to himself when a youth of three-and-twenty. Never speaking a word concerning a heavenly mission, never deluding himself or others with the usual phraseology of enthusiasts, he accomplished the task, through danger, amid toils and with sacrifices such as few men have ever been able to make on their country's altar;—for the disinterested benevolence of the man was as prominent as his fortitude. A prince of high rank and with royal revenues, he stripped himself of station, wealth, almost at times of the common necessities of life, and became, in his country's cause, nearly a beggar as well as an outlaw. Nor was he forced into his career by an accidental impulse from which there was no recovery. Retreat was ever open to him. Not only pardon but advancement was urged upon him again and again. Officially and privately, directly and circuitously, his confiscated estates, together with indefinite and boundless favors in addition, were offered to him on every great occasion. On the arrival of Don John, at the Breda negotiations, at the Cologne conferences, we have seen how calmly these offers were waved aside, as if their rejection was so simple that it hardly required many words for its signification, yet he had mortgaged his estates so deeply that his heirs hesitated at accepting their inheritance, for fear it should involve them in debt.

It is difficult to find any other characteristic deserving of grave censure, but his enemies have adopted a simpler process. They have been able to find few flaws in his nature, and therefore have denounced it in gross. It is not that his character was here and there defective, but that the eternal jewel was false. The patriotism was counterfeit; the self-abnegation and the generosity were counterfeit. He was governed only by ambition—by a desire of personal advancement. They never attempted to deny his talents, his industry, his vast sacrifices of wealth and station; but they ridiculed the idea that he could have been inspired by any but unworthy motives. God alone knows the heart of

man. He alone can unweave the tangled skein of human motives, and detect the hidden springs of human action, but as far as can be judged by a careful observation of undisputed facts, and by a diligent collation of public and private documents, it would seem that no man—not even Washington—has ever been inspired by a purer patriotism. At any rate, the charge of ambition and self-seeking can only be answered by a reference to the whole picture which these volumes have attempted to portray. The words, the deeds of the man are there. As much as possible, his inmost soul is revealed in his confidential letters, and he who looks in a right spirit will hardly fail to find what he desires.

Whether originally of a timid temperament or not, he was certainly possessed of perfect courage at last. In siege and battle—in the deadly air of pestilential cities—in the long exhaustion of mind and body which comes from unduly protracted labor and anxiety—amid the countless conspiracies of assassins—he was daily exposed to death in every shape. Within two years, five different attempts against his life had been discovered. Rank and fortune were offered to any malefactor who would compass the murder. He had already been shot through the head, and almost mortally wounded. Under such circumstances, even a brave man might have seen a pitfall at every step, a dagger in every hand, and poison in every cup. On the contrary, he was ever cheerful, and hardly took more precaution than usual. "God in his mercy," said he, with unaffected simplicity, "will maintain my innocence and my honor during my life and in future ages. As to my fortune and my life, I have dedicated both, long since, to his service. He will do therewith what pleases Him for His glory and my salvation." Thus his suspicions were not even excited by the ominous face of Gérard, when he first presented himself at the dining-room door. The Prince laughed off his wife's prophetic apprehension at the sight of his murderer, and was as cheerful as usual to the last.

He possessed, too, that which to the heathen philoso-



William the Silent.



Spot Where William the Silent Was Shot.

pher seemed the greatest good—the sound mind in the sound body. His physical frame was after death found so perfect that a long life might have been in store for him, notwithstanding all which he had endured. The desperate illness of 1574, the frightful gunshot wound inflicted by Jaureguy in 1582, had left no traces. The physicians pronounced that his body presented an aspect of perfect health. His temperament was cheerful. At table, the pleasures of which, in moderation, were his only relaxation, he was always animated and merry, and this jocoseness was partly natural, partly intentional. In the darkest hours of his country's trial, he affected a serenity which he was far from feeling, so that his apparent gaiety at momentous epochs was even censured by dullards, who could not comprehend its philosophy, nor applaud the flippancy of William the Silent.

He went through life bearing the load of a people's sorrows upon his shoulders with a smiling face. Their name was the last word upon his lips, save the simple affirmative, with which the soldier who had been battling for the right all his lifetime, commended his soul in dying "to his great captain, Christ." The people were grateful and affectionate, for they trusted the character of their "Father William," and not all the clouds which calumny could collect ever dimmed to their eyes the radiance of that lofty mind to which they were accustomed, in their darkest calamities, to look for light. As long as he lived, he was the guiding-star of a whole brave nation, and when he died the little children cried in the streets.

* * * *

His intellectual faculties were various and of the highest order. He had the exact, practical, and combining qualities which make the great commander, and his friends claim that, in military genius, he was second to no captain in Europe. This was, no doubt, an exaggeration of partial attachment, but it is certain that the Emperor Charles had an exalted opinion of his capacity for the field. His fortification of Philippeville and Charlemont, in the face of

the enemy—his passage of the Meuse in Alva's sight—his unfortunate but well-ordered campaign against that general—his sublime plan of relief, projected and successfully directed at last from his sick bed, for the besieged city of Leyden—will always remain monuments of his practical military skill.

Of the soldier's great virtues—constancy in disaster, devotion to duty, hopefulness in defeat—no man ever possessed a larger share. He arrived through a series of reverses, at a perfect victory. He planted a free commonwealth under the very battery of the Inquisition, in defiance of the most powerful empire existing. He was therefore a conqueror in the loftiest sense, for he conquered liberty and a national existence for a whole people. The contest was long, and he fell in the struggle, but the victory was to the dead hero, not to the living monarch. It is to be remembered, too, that he always wrought with inferior instruments. His troops were usually mercenaries, who were but too apt to mutiny upon the eve of battle, while he was opposed by the most formidable veterans of Europe, commanded successively by the first captains of the age. That, with no lieutenant of eminent valor or experience, save only his brother Louis, and with none at all after that chieftain's death, William of Orange should succeed in baffling the efforts of Alva, Requesens, Don John of Austria, and Alexander Farnese—men whose names are among the most brilliant in the military annals of the world—is in itself sufficient evidence of his warlike ability. At the period of his death he had reduced the number of obedient provinces to two; only Artois and Hainault acknowledging Philip, while the other fifteen were in open revolt, the greater part having solemnly forsaken their sovereign.

The supremacy of his political genius was entirely beyond question. He was the first statesman of the age. The quickness of his perception was only equaled by the caution which enabled him to mature the results of his observations. His knowledge of human nature was profound. He gov-

erned the passions and sentiments of a great nation as if they had been but the keys and chords of one vast instrument; and his hand rarely failed to evoke harmony even out of the wildest storms.

* * * *

Ghent, saved thrice by the policy, the eloquence, the self-sacrifice of Orange, fell within three months of his murder into the hands of Parma. The loss of this most important city, followed in the next year by the downfall of Antwerp, sealed the fate of the Southern Netherlands. Had the Prince lived, how different might have been the country's fate! If seven provinces could dilate, in so brief a space, into the powerful commonwealth which the Republic soon became, what might not have been achieved by the united seventeen; a confederacy which would have united the adamantine vigor of the Batavian and Frisian races with the subtler, more delicate, and more graceful national elements in which the genius of the Frank, the Roman, and the Romanized Celt were so intimately blended. As long as the Father of the country lived, such a union was possible. His power of managing men was so unquestionable, that there was always a hope even in the darkest hour, for men felt implicit reliance, as well on his intellectual resources as on his integrity.

This power of dealing with his fellowmen he manifested in the various ways in which it has been usually exhibited by statesmen. He possessed a ready eloquence—sometimes impassioned, oftener argumentative, always rational. His influence over his audience was unexampled in the annals of that country or age; yet he never condescended to flatter the people. He never followed the nation, but always led her in the path of duty and of honor, and was much more prone to rebuke the vices than to pander to the passions of his hearers. He never failed to administer ample chastisement to parsimony, to jealousy, to insubordination, to intolerance, to infidelity, wherever it was due, nor feared to confront the states or the people in their most angry hours, and

to tell them the truth to their faces. This commanding position he alone could stand upon, for his countrymen knew the generosity which had sacrificed his all for them, the self-denial which had eluded rather than sought political advancement, whether from king or people, and the untiring devotion which had consecrated a whole life to toil and danger in the cause of their emancipation. While, therefore, he was ever ready to rebuke, and always too honest to flatter, he at the same time possessed the eloquence which could convince or persuade. He knew how to reach both the mind and the heart of his hearers. His orations, whether extemporaneous or prepared—his written messages to the states-general, to the provincial authorities, to the municipal bodies—his private correspondence with men of all ranks, from emperors and kings down to secretaries, and even children—all show an easy flow of language, a fulness of thought, a power of expression rare in that age, a fund of historical allusion, a considerable power of imagination, a warmth of sentiment, a breadth of view, a directness of purpose—a range of qualities, in short, which would in themselves have stamped him as one of the master-minds of his century, had there been no other monument to his memory than the remains of his spoken or written eloquence. The bulk of his performances in this department was prodigious. Not even Philip was more industrious in the cabinet. Not even Granville held a more facile pen. He wrote and spoke equally well in French, German, or Flemish; and he possessed, besides, Spanish, Italian, Latin. The weight of his correspondence alone would have almost sufficed for the common industry of a lifetime, and although many volumes of his speeches and letters have been published, there remain in the various archives of the Netherlands and Germany many documents from his hand which will probably never see the light. If the capacity for unremitting intellectual labor in an honorable cause be the measure of human greatness, few minds could be compared to the "large composition" of this man.

The German Kaiser

By Harold Frederic

[The purpose of this series of studies which has been selected from the best of the many books written upon the German Emperor is to give CHAUTAUQUAN readers an accurate picture of the most striking personality among the crowned heads of Europe. The following extracts, taken from Harold Frederic's "The Young Emperor," published by Putnam's in 1892, will be followed by others from equally interesting and more recent writers.]

The Kaiser's Education

YOUNG WILLIAM was the first of his race to be sent to a public school, the big gymnasium at Cassel being selected for the purpose. The innovation was credited at the time to the eccentric liberalizing notions of his mother, the English Crown Princess. The old Kaiser did not like the idea, and Bismarck vehemently opposed it, but the parents had their way, and at the age of fifteen the lad went, along with his twelve-year-old brother Henry, and their tutor, Dr. Hinzpeter. They were lodged in an old schloss, which had been one of the Electoral residences, and out of school hours maintained a considerable seclusion. But in the school itself William was treated quite like any ordinary citizen's son.

It may have been a difficult matter for some of the teachers to act as if they were unconscious that this particular pupil was the heir to the Hohenzollerns, but men who were at the school at the time assure me they did so, with only one exception. The solitary flunkey, knowing that William was more backward in his Greek than most of his class, sought to curry favor with the Prince by warning him that the morrow's examination was to be, let us say, upon a certain chapter of Xenophon. The boy William received this hint in silence, but early the next morning went down to the classroom and wrote upon the blackboard in big letters the

information he had received, so that he might have no advantage over his fellows. This struck me when I heard it as a curious illustration of the boy's character. There seems to have been no excited indignation at the meanness of the tutor—but only the manifestation of a towering personal and family pride, which would not allow him to win a prize through profiting by knowledge withheld from the others.

During his three years at Cassel William was very democratic in his intercourse with the other boys. He may have been helped to this by the fact that he was one of the worst-dressed boys in the school—in accordance with an ancient family rule which makes the Hohenzollern children wear out their old clothes in a way that would astonish the average grocer's progeny. He was only an ordinary scholar so far as his studies went. At that time his brother Henry, who went to a different school, was conspicuously the brighter pupil of the two. Those who were at Cassel with the future Emperor have the idea that he was contented there, but he himself, upon reflection, is convinced that he did not like it.

At the age of eighteen William left Cassel and entered upon his university course at Bonn. Here his tutor, Hinze-peter, who had been his daily companion and mentor from childhood, parted company with him, and the young Prince passed into the hands of soldiers and men of the world. The change marks an important epoch in the formation of his character.

There is a photograph of him belonging to the earlier part of this Cassel period which depicts a refined, gentle, dreamy-faced German boy, with a soft, girlish chin, small arched lips with a suggestion of dimples at the corners, and fine meditative eyes. The forehead, though not broad, is of fair height and fullness. The dominant effect of the face is that of sweetness. Looking at it, one instinctively thinks "How fond that boy's parents must have been of him!" And they were fond in the extreme.

It is more than probable that the idea of sending the young Prince to the Cassel gymnasium originated with Dr. Hinzpeter. At all events, we know that he held advanced and extreme views as to the necessity of emphasizing the popular side of the Hohenzollern tradition.

This Prussian family has always differed radically from its other German neighbors in professing to be solicitous for the poor people rather than for the nobility's privileges and claims. Sometimes this has sunk to be a profession merely; more often it has been an active guiding principle. The lives of the second and third Kings of Prussia are filled with the most astonishing details of vigilant, ceaseless intermeddling in the affairs of peasant farmers, artisans, and wage-earners generally, hearing complaints, spying out injustice, and roughly seeing wrongs righted. When Prussia grew too big to be thus paternally administered by a King poking about on his rounds with a rattan and a taker of notes, the tradition still survived. We find traces of it all along down to our times in the legislation of the Diet in the direction of what is called State Socialism.

Dr. Hinzpeter felt the full inspiration of this tradition. He longed to make it more a reality in the mind of his princely pupil than it had ever been before. Thus it was that the lad was sent to Cassel, to sit on hard benches with the sons of simple citizens, and to get to know what the life of the people was like. Years afterwards this inspiration was to bear fruit.

But in 1877 the work of creating an ideally democratic and popular Hohenzollern was abruptly interrupted. Dr. Hinzpeter went back to Bielefeld, and young William entered the University of Bonn. The soft-faced, gentle-minded boy, still full of his mother's milk, his young mind sweetened and strengthened by the dreams of clemency, compassion, and earnest searchings after duty which he had imbibed from his teacher, suddenly found himself transplanted in new ground. The atmosphere was absolutely novel. Instead of being a boy among boys, he all at once found him-

self a prince amongst aristocratic toadies. In place of Hinzpeter, he had a military *aide* given him for principal companion, friend, and guide.

These next few years at the Rhenish university did not, we see now, wholly efface what Dr. Hinzpeter had done. But they obscured and buried his work, and reared upon its a superstructure of another sort—a different kind of William, redolent of royal pretensions, and youthful self-conceit, delighting in the rattle and clank of spurs and swords and dreaming of battlefields.

Poor Hinzpeter, in his Bielefeld retreat, could have had but small satisfaction in learning of the growth of the new William. The parents at Potsdam, too, who had built such loving hopes upon the tender and gracious promise of boyhood—they could not have been happy either.

The Kaiser and the Press

A whimsical susceptibility to affront in the printed word, no matter how mean or trivial the force back of it, is a trait which has often come near making Bismarck ridiculous, and it is not pleasant to note how largely William seems also to be possessed with it. He is as nervous about what the papers will say as a young *debutante* on the stage. Not only does he keep an anxious watch upon the talk of the German editors, but he ordains a vigilant scrutiny of the articles printed in foreign countries from the pens of correspondents stationed at Berlin. In this he is very German. Nobody in England, for example, ever dreams of caring about, or for the most part of even taking the trouble to learn, what is printed about English personages or politics. The foreign correspondents in London are as free as the wind that blows. But matters were ordered very differently at the beginning of the present reign in Berlin, and to this day journalists pursue their calling there under a sense of espionage hardly to be imagined in Fleet Street. It is true that a change for the better is distinctly visible of late, but it will be the work of many years to eradicate the low views

of German journalism which Bismarck has instilled, alike, unfortunately, in the royal palaces and the editorial offices of Prussia.

* * * * *

So recently as in May, 1890, some two months after the retirement of Bismarck, when the regular official deputation from the new Reichstag waited upon William, he pointed out to the Radical members that the *Freisinnige* press was criticizing the army estimates, which he and his generals had made as low as possible, and sharply warned them to see that a stop was put to such conduct on the part of their friends, the Radical editors. And in December of 1890, in his remarkable speech to the Educational Conference, he lightly grouped journalists with the "hunger candidates" and others who formed an over-educated class "dangerous to society."

The Kaiser's Infallibility

This inability to tolerate the expression of opinions different from his own is very Bismarckian. The ex-Chancellor, in fact, has for years past acted and talked upon the theory that anybody who did not agree with him must of necessity be unpatriotic, and came at last to hurl the epithet of *Reichsfeind*—enemy of the Empire—every time anyone disputed him on any point whatever.

William has roughly shorn away Bismarck's pretence to infallibility, but about the divine nature of his own claims he has no doubt. Some of his deliverances on questions of morals and ethics, in his capacity as a sort of helmeted Northern Pope, are calculated to bring a smile to the face of the Muse of History. His celebrated harangue to the Rector of the Berlin University, Professor Gebhardt, wherein he complained that, under the lead of democratic professors, the students were filled with destructive political doctrines, and concluded by gruffly saying, "Let your students go more to churches and less to beer cellars and fencing saloons"—was put down to his youth, for it dates



The Kaiser in the Uniform of a Spanish General.

from the close of 1888. It is interesting to note, from William's recent speech at Bonn, that he has decidedly altered his views on both beer-drinking and duelling among students. He began his reign, however, with ultra-puritanical notions on these as well as other subjects.

Long after this early deliverance his confidence in himself, so far from suffering abatement, had so magnified itself that he called the professors of another university together and lectured them upon the bad way in which they were taught history. He had discovered, he said, that there was now much fondness for treating the French Revolution as a great political movement, not without its helpful and beneficent results. This pernicious notion must no longer be encouraged in German universities, but students should be taught to regard the whole thing as one vast and unmitigated crime against God and man.

In this dogmatic phrase of his character William is much more like Frederic William I than like any of his nearer ancestors in the Hohenzollern line. These later monarchs, beginning with Frederic the Great and following his luminous example, were habitually chary about bothering themselves with their subjects' opinions. William at one time thought a good deal upon the fact that he was a successor of Frederic the Great, and by fits and starts set himself to imitate the earlier acts of that sovereign. His restless flying about from place to place, and, even more clearly, his edicts rebuking the army officers for gambling and for harshness to their men, were copied from the illustrious original. But in his attitude toward the mental and moral liberty of his subjects he goes back a generation to Frederic's father—and suggests to us also the reflection that he is a grandson of that highly self-confident gentleman whom English-speaking people knew as the Prince Consort.

Personal Appearance

In the matter of personal appearance there are two quite distinct and different Williams. Those who see the



The Kaiser as a Doctor of Laws, Cambridge University.

young German Emperor on a state occasion think of him as almost a tall man, with a stern, thoughtful face and the most distinguished bearing of any sovereign in Europe. He holds himself with arrow-like straightness, bears his uniform or robes with proud grace, and draws his features into a kind of mask of imperial dignity and reserved wisdom and strength very impressive to the beholder. It is with what may be called this official countenance of William's that the general public is chiefly familiar, for he assumes it in front of the photographer's camera, just as he does on parade, at formal gatherings, and even in his carriage when he drives through the streets. There is nothing to cavil at in this. One of the most important functions of an Emperor must surely be to look like an Emperor.

But in private life, when the absence of ceremonial and the presence of none but friends permits him to unbend, we see quite another William. He does not now give the impression of being a tall man, and his face wears a softened and kindly expression prone to break into an extremely sweet and winning smile. When this smiling mood is upon him he looks curiously like his uncle, the Duke of Connaught, although at other times the resemblance is not apparent. As a boy he was very white-skinned, with pale flaxen hair. Years of military outdoor life burned his face to a tawny brown, through which of late an unhealthy pallor, the product of overwork and sleeplessness, at times shows itself. His hair is of average darkness, but his small and habitually curled moustache is of a light yellowish color.

An observer who studied him closely during a whole day when he first visited Russia in 1888 describes him at the first morning review of troops as carrying himself almost pompously erect, and wearing a countenance of such gloomy severity that everybody was afraid to approach him, so that the officers who saw him for the first time jokingly whispered to one another that a new William the Taciturn had come into being. But in the afternoon, when the Czarina presided over a little garden party, limited almost to

the circle of royalty, William appeared in a straw hat and jaunty holiday costume, smoked cigarettes continuously, and laughed and chatted with everybody as gaily and affably as any little bank book-keeper snatching an unaccustomed day in the country.

The Kaiser Religious

The young Emperor has always been spoken of by those close to him as a sincerely religious man. During the past year his tendencies in this direction have visibly received a great impetus. The note of pious fervor is struck now with much greater frequency than formerly, and with a ring of candor which forbids the suggestion of pretence. He only the other day concluded a speech to a squad of recruits with the earnest injunction to use the Lord's Prayer, adding that he had himself derived much help from doing so. It is not an altogether pleasant commentary upon the value of the Christian profession of our day, that this remark has been cited as indication that William's mind was losing its balance. The scandalous stories which the French and Russian press set in circulation last summer about his mad behavior on his yacht, were all built upon the fact that he preached sermons to the crew—or rather read a series of little homilies prepared for the purpose by one of his chaplains. If this is a proof of madness, it might not be a bad idea to have William bite some of the other sovereigns and princes of Europe.

Famous European Short Stories

I. On the Journey*

By Guy de Maupassant

[In connection with the C. L. S. C. book "Studies in European Literature" it is planned to publish in THE CHAUTAUQUAN each month some short story masterpiece by the greatest European writers. The story published herewith is by Guy de Maupassant, the acknowledged master of French short story. This example of his work, though perhaps not so widely known as some others, is nevertheless typical of his style and method. —THE EDITOR]

SINCE leaving Cannes the carriage had been full; and being all acquainted, we conversed together. As we passed Tarascon someone said, "It is here the murders happen." And we began to talk of that mysterious assassin who has never been caught, and who from time to time during the last two years has offered up to himself some traveler's life. Everyone hazarded suppositions, everyone gave his opinion; and women looked shivering at the sombre night behind the panes, fearing to see the head of a man show suddenly in the doorway. And we began to tell dreadful stories of adventures, of some tête-à-tête with a madman in an express, of hours passed opposite suspicious-looking persons, quite alone.

All the men had stories "on their honor;" all had intimidated, knocked down, and choked some malefactor in surprising circumstances, and with admirable boldness and presence of mind. A physician who passed each winter in the South, wished in his turn to tell a tale.

"I," said he, "have never had a chance to try my courage in an affair of that sort; but I knew a woman, one of my patients, who is now dead, to whom there happened the strangest thing in the world, and also the most mysterious and the most affecting.

*From the "Odd Number," by Guy de Maupassant. Translated by Jonathan Sturges. Copyright, 1889, by Harper and Brothers. Reprinted through the courtesy of the publishers.

"She was a Russian, the Countess Marie Baranow, a very great lady of exquisite beauty. You all know how beautiful Russian women are, or at least how beautiful they seem to us, with their fine nostrils, with their delicate mouths, with their eyes of an indefinable color—a sort of a blue-gray, set close together—and with that grace of theirs which is cold and a little hard. They have about them something naughty and seductive, something haughty and gentle, something tender and severe, which is altogether charming to a Frenchman. It is perhaps, however, only the difference of race and type which makes me see so much.

"For several years her doctor had perceived that she was threatened with a malady of the chest, and had been trying to induce her to go to the South of France; but she obstinately refused to leave St. Petersburg. Finally, last autumn, the physician gave her up as lost, and so informed her husband, who at once ordered his wife to leave for Mentone.

"She took the train, alone in her carriage, her servants occupying another apartment. She leaned against the doorway, a little sad, watching the country and the passing villages, feeling herself in life so lonely, so abandoned, without children, almost without relatives, with a husband whose love was dead, and who, not coming with her, had just thrown her off to the end of the world as he would send to the hospital a valet who was sick.

"At each station, her body-servant Ivan came to ask if anything was wanted by his mistress. He was an old servant, blindly devoted, ready to carry out any order which she might give.

"The night fell, the train rolled onward at full speed. She was much unstrung, she could not sleep. Suddenly she took the idea of counting the money which her husband had given her at the last moment, in French gold. She opened her little bag, and emptied the shining flood of metal upon her knees.

"But all of a sudden a breath of cold air struck her in the face. She raised her head in surprise. The door had just swung open. The Countess Marie, in desperation, brusquely threw a shawl over the money which was spread upon her knees, and waited. Some seconds passed, then a man appeared, bareheaded, wounded in the hand, panting, in evening dress. He shut the door again, sat down, looked at his neighbor with glittering eyes, then wrapped a handkerchief round his wrist, from which the blood was flowing.

"The young countess felt herself grow weak with fright. This man had certainly seen her counting her gold, and he was come to murder and to rob.

"He kept staring at her, breathless, his face convulsed, ready, no doubt, to make a spring.

"He said suddenly:

"'Have no fear, madame!'

"She answered nothing, being unable to open her mouth, hearing her heart beat and her ears hum.

"He continued:

"'I am not a criminal, madame.'

"She said nothing, but in a brusque movement which she made, her knees came close together, and her gold began to flow down upon the carpet as water flows from a gutter.

"The man, surprised, looked at this rivulet of metal, and suddenly he stooped to pick up the money.

"She rose in a mad fright, casting all her treasure to the ground, and ran to the door to throw herself out upon the track. But he understood what she was about to do, rushed forward, caught her in his arms, made her sit down by force, and holding her wrists: 'Listen, madame, I am not a criminal, and the proof is that I am going to pick up this money and give it back to you. But I am a lost man, a dead man, unless you help me to cross the frontier. I cannot tell you more. In one hour we shall be at the last Russian station; in one hour and twenty minutes we shall pass the boundary of the empire. If you do not rescue me, I am lost. And yet, madame, I have neither killed nor

stolen, nor done anything against my honor. I swear it to you. I cannot tell you more.'

"And getting down upon his knees, he picked up the gold, looking even for the last pieces, which had rolled far under the seats. Then, when the little leather bag was once more full, he returned it to his neighbor without adding a word, and again he went and sat in the other corner of the carriage.

"They no longer stirred, either one or the other. She remained motionless and dumb, still fainting with terror, then little by little growing more at ease. As for him, he did not make a gesture, a movement; he sat straight, his eyes fastened before him, very pale, as though he had been dead. From time to time she looked at him suddenly, and as suddenly looked away. He was a man about thirty, very handsome, with every appearance of a gentleman.

"The train ran through the darkness, cast rending cries across the night, sometimes slackened its pace, then went off again at full speed. But suddenly it slowed, whistled several times, and stopped.

"Ivan appeared at the door to get his orders.

"The Countess Marie, with a trembling voice, considered her strange companion for the last time, then said to her servant, with a brusque voice:

"Ivan, you are to return to the count; I have no more need of you.'

"The man, speechless, opened his enormous eyes. He stammered:

"But—Barine!"

"She continued:

"No, you are not to come; I have changed my mind. I desire that you remain in Russia. Here is money to return. Give me your cap and your cloak."

"The old servant, quite bewildered, bared his head and held out his cloak. He always obeyed without reply, being well accustomed to the sudden wishes and the irresistible

caprices of his masters. And he withdrew, the tears in his eyes.

"The train went on, running towards the frontier.

"Then the Countess Marie said to her neighbor:

"These things are for you, monsieur; you are Ivan, my servant. I add only one condition to what I do: it is that you shall never speak to me, that you shall not address me a single word, either to thank me or for any purpose whatever."

"The unknown bowed without uttering a word.

"Very soon they came to a stop once more, and officials in uniform visited the train. The countess offered them her papers, and pointing to the man seated at the back of the carriage:

"My servant, Ivan. Here is his passport.

"The train went on.

"During the whole night, they remained in tête-à-tête, both silent.

"In the morning, when they stopped at a German station, the unknown got down; then, standing straight in the door-way:

"Forgive my breaking my promise, madame; but I have deprived you of your servant, and it is right that I should fill his place. Have you need of anything?"

"She answered coldly:

"Go and find my maid."

"He went to do so, then disappeared.

"When she got out of the carriage at some restaurant or other, she perceived him at a distance looking at her. They reached Mentone."

The doctor was silent a second, then resumed:

"One day, as I was receiving my patients in my office, I saw enter a tall young fellow, who said to me:

"Doctor, I come to ask news about the Countess Marie Baranow. I am, although she does not know me, a friend of her husband."

"I replied:

"She is doomed. She will never go back to Russia."

"And the man suddenly commenced to sob, then he got up and went out, reeling like a drunkard.

"The same night I told the countess that a stranger had come to inquire from me about her health. She seemed moved, and told me all the story which I have just told you. She added:

"That man, whom I do not know at all, now follows me like a shadow, I meet him every time I go out; he looks at me after a strange fashion, but he has never spoken."

"She reflected, then added:

"See, I would wager he is under my window."

"She left her easy-chair, went to pull back the curtains, and sure enough, she showed me the man who had come to see me, now seated there on a bench upon the promenade, his eyes lifted towards the hotel. He perceived us, rose, and went off without once turning his head.

"And from that time forward, I assisted at a surprising sorrowful thing—at the silent love of these two beings, who did not even know one another.

"He loved her with the affection of an animal who has been saved, and who is grateful and devoted unto death. He came each day to say to me: 'How is she?' understanding that I had divined the secret. And he cried when he had seen her pass each day feebler and paler.

"She said to me:

"I have spoken but a single time to that strange man, and it seems to me as if I had known him for twenty years."

"And when they met, she would return his bow with a grave and charming smile. I could see that she was happy—she, the abandoned, the doomed—I could see that she was happy to be loved like this, with such respect and such consistency, with such exaggerated poetry, with this devotion which was ready for all things. And notwithstanding, faithful to her mystical resolve, she wildly refused to receive him, to know his name, to speak with him. She said: 'No, no, that would spoil for me this curious

friendship. We must remain strangers one to the other.'

"As for him, he also was certainly a kind of Don Quixote, because he made no attempt to approach her. He meant to keep to the end the absurd promise of never speaking, which he had made her in the railway carriage.

"Often, during her weary hours of weakness, she rose from her long chair, and went to open the curtains a little way to see if he was there, beneath her window. And when she had seen him, always motionless upon his bench, she went back and lay down with a smile upon her lips.

"She died one day about ten o'clock. As I was leaving the hotel he came up to me with a distracted face; he had already heard the news.

"'I would like to see her, for one second, in your presence,' said he.

"I took him by the arm and went back into the house.

"When he was before the couch of the dead he seized her hand and kissed it with an endless kiss, then escaped like a madman."

The doctor again was silent; then continued:

"This is certainly the strangest railway adventure that I know. It must also be said that men take sometimes the wildest freaks."

A woman murmured, half aloud:

"Those two people were not so crazy as you think. They were—they were—"

But she could not speak further, she was crying so. As we changed the conversation to calm her, we never knew what she had wished to say.

The Vesper Hour*

By Chancellor John H. Vincent

At the opening "Vesper Hour" of the new year in the C. L. S. C. perhaps I cannot do better than to reply to certain questions which have recently come to me and which may often have arisen in the minds of other Chautauqua readers. One member raises the following question: When we speak of the Jews as "chosen people" are we not implying a lack of justice in God in dealing with other races?

The most interesting of all the races is the Hebrew. To say nothing of the Biblical records, in the details of the history from the days of Abraham to those of St. John we find the most interesting material in the studies which have been made of the persecutions, the achievements, the indefatigable efforts and the marvelous successes which individuals and families have scored. It is too late in our modern civilization to depreciate the race as a whole, or to speak words of contempt of individual Hebrews. For industry, tact, persistency, patience under abuse, fidelity to religious conviction the Jews are not only not excelled, they are not equaled in the annals of history. They were, according to our Christian theory, a chosen people with a specific mission of preparation for a consummation the most wonderful in all history—the birth, the training and the manifestation of the Messiah, the Christ whom as Christians we recognize as the ripe fruit of the whole Jewish system, a human-divine product through whom the highest civilization of the race has been realized and through whom the salvation of the race—the representatives of the race who give consent—is guaranteed. We Christians owe all that is best and noblest in our civilization to the Jew. The most precious names on our list of saints, heroes, teachers from Moses to Christ are names of Jews. The great Christian

*The Vesper Hour, contributed to THE CHAUTAUQUAN each month by Chancellor Vincent, continues the ministries of Chautauqua's Vesper Service throughout the year.

authorities, Paul, Peter, John, Matthew, Luke, all were Jews.

The Jews we always, as Christian people, say were a "chosen people." To them we are indebted for all that is best in the beginnings of the Christian faith. When we say that they were a "chosen" people we do not assume that our great God was at all a partial God, giving advantage to one people above another. In the divine wisdom and love all peoples the world over and the ages through have some knowledge of Deity, some intimations and leadings which if followed will invariably and inevitably bring more light to the individual who is willing to obey the light he has. God has had his witness among all races. No individual with the moral sense but has his opportunity to choose between the higher and the lower, the truth and error. And as each man follows the light he has a clearer light and a larger opportunity has been given him. Everybody has a chance. No one is without ability to show what his preference is and what line of life he will follow. The Jews were a chosen people, chosen for a special work, chosen to illustrate the divine providence in all nations and for all people. They were favored in being illustrations of God's universal care. What Israel had all peoples in some measure had. God calls all nations to honor Him, to follow His direction. And the career of Israel was a lesson for individual lives and for national life in all climes and in all periods of history. The ideals of personal character set forth by distinguished Israelites were designed to foreshadow the Messiah and to serve as examples for all time, and for Gentiles of every kind.

The question is asked: "Do you not think that the present study of Sociology in college and social 'settlements' is tending to displace religious interest?" In reply I say with all possible emphasis: *The very reverse is true.*

There is a new interest in the civilized world in the study of social questions. We find it everywhere. The great missionary movements projected and carried on during the past century have awakened a new interest in the great question of the relations of the individual to society and the ob-

ligation of all men everywhere to ask, How may man help man? How may society help the individual? How may the evils and sufferings and the sins of society be removed and society become strong in righteousness and philanthropic impulse? What is religion but the love of man born of the knowledge and love of God? What did the Son of Man in his teachings say concerning the two sides of human obligation? Thou shalt love the Lord God with all thy heart and thy neighbor as thyself. Modern Sociology is organized, scientific, efficient Christianity of the noblest type. It is carried on by foremost Christian believers. It develops religious faith and sympathy. It wins men and women to a higher appreciation of Christianity.

Some one writes as follows: "Do you think the church and the world are drawing nearer together to the detriment of the church?" I answer promptly and emphatically that what we call the "world" is often only the awakened "society" that has become aware of its responsibility to all members of the race and that for the first time apprehends the theory of Jesus that the highest service of God is in the love and service of our fellow men; that he best worships who helps, always, of course, keeping in mind both divine worship and in human service the necessity of having the heart filled with the love of both the divine Father and all human brothers which includes in a very important sense the entire race. It can never be a "detriment" to the church to love even the "Samaritan" as Jesus did and to do for the good of one's "enemy" just what one would wish that enemy to do for him. No unselfish love and service can possibly do anything but good to the doer and to the recipient. It is a most unworthy view of religious obligation that limits religion to a certain class of ecclesiastical functions, a fixed and unalterable creed statement or the building up of an "institution" at the expense and the inevitable damage of society and "the state." Whatever makes for human well-being both in time and eternity is a legitimate object of Church sympathy, enthusiasm and endeavor.



OFFICERS OF CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE
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THE C. L. S. C. "EASY FOR ANYBODY."

If you are a new Chautauquan beginning your course this year, you are doubtless starting out with enthusiasm. Perchance with the ardor of a new convert, you are setting a pace for yourself rather too strenuous for a busy world, and so may begin to flag early in the race. Hence this word of suggestion that you may get the most out of your four years' venture. The C. L. S. C. course is for rest and enjoyment, and "rest" is a word of large meaning in the vocabulary of grown men and women. It is sometimes spelled "growth" or "inspiration" or "vision." So the course must not be made a task or it will speedily lose its charm. The phrases "College Outlook" and "School for out-of-School People" as applied to the C. L. S. C. suggest to some the thought of rigid rules and recitations. But "out-of-school people" are a privileged class who have met life and developed individuality and the C. L. S. C. recognizes this fact. So you are free to select your own methods; to read for the joy of the reading,—and as much or as little as you choose. Four books in a year represent a small undertaking. But the "School" which prescribes them has chosen them with care and at the end of the four years you will realize that your mental growth has been an "all round" one.



Interior of Library at Wellsville, N.Y.



City Hall, Wellsville, New York, where the public library is situated at present.



Typical Residence in Santiago, Chile.



Typical Views in Santiago Chile, as seen by a resident member of
the C. L. S. C. Class of '08.

C. L. S. C. Round Table



Dr. Emil Reich.

A few years ago a young ranchman read the four years' course of the C. L. S. C. while tending a herd of sheep on the lonely plains of the far West. He had no books of reference, no "Circle" with whose members he could discuss his books. He simply read and enjoyed them and they opened a great new world to him. When he came back home to his college-trained sister and her companions he entered into their world as naturally as if his "campus" had been in the midst of ivy clad buildings instead of on the wind swept plains of Wyoming.

DR. EMIL REICH.

The author of the first book for the coming year, "Foundations of Modern Europe," is Dr. Emil Reich of Esperjes, Hungary. Dr. Reich studied at the Universities of Prague, Budapest, and Vienna, and holds the degree of Doctor of Law. Up to his thirtieth year he studied almost exclusively in libraries, but later as he mentions in his preface to "Foundations of Modern Europe," he visited various countries in order that he might observe and study nationalities at first hand. He spent five years in the United States, four in France, and has been with interruptions for almost nine years in England. He has lectured frequently at Oxford, Cambridge, and London Universities, and was employed by the British government to prepare its side of the case in the Venezuela boundary affair. He is the author of a number of publications, among them a History of Civilization; Hungarian Literature; Success among Nations; The Foreigner in History; several historical atlases, etc.

Mr. George Whar-
ton Edwards.

MR. GEORGE WHARTON EDWARDS.

Mr. George W. Edwards, whose "Reading Journey Through the Hollow Land" begins with this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, was born in Fair Haven, Conn. He received his academic education in Antwerp and in Paris. He has been awarded numerous medals both here and abroad for his painting and also for his work in black and white, as he is one of the best known of our present day illustrators. For five years he was director of the Art Department of *Collier's Magazine* and is now connected with the American Banknote Company. He is a member of the American Water Color Society, the National Sculpture Society, the New York Water Color Club, the Author's Club, the Ex-Libris Society of London, and the Society "Amsterdamsch" of the Netherlands.

He painted a mural decoration entitled Hendrik Hudson for the West Point Military Academy and is the author of a number of charming sketches,—"Break O'Day and Other Stories," "Thumb Nail Sketches," "P'tit Matinie Monotones," etc. He has illustrated Oliver Wendell Holmes' "Last Leaf," Spenser's "Epithalamium," and "Old English Love Songs" and "Old English Ballads."

THE FIRST BOOK OF THE YEAR.

Don't make the mistake of thinking that you must know all the facts to which Professor Reich alludes in his "Foundations of Modern Europe" in order to enjoy and find profit in it. Few people except trained historical scholars could explain every one of the author's allusions. In most cases the facts are given with sufficient fullness to show what the writer is endeavoring to bring out. Try to get the chief ideas which he emphasizes in each chapter and you will find great enjoyment in his arguments and conclusions. Get someone to read it with you if possible. You may disagree with the author and you will want someone who has read the book to listen while you argue your case!

C. L. S. C. Round Table

THE SMALL CIRCLE.

One of the chief advantages of a Chautauqua Circle is the opportunity which it offers for the discussion of subjects in which its members have a newly awakened interest. Many a reader who would be quite appalled at the idea of being quizzed upon his slender store of historical knowledge will quite forget his fears when gently stimulated to a discussion of something which he has been reading. So it is that small informal Circles which can gather about a table have a great opportunity. Under the magic of sympathy, timid students are transformed and the Circle illustrates in its own experience the meaning of education—to lead forth.

ESPERANTO.

A new world language seems to be an inevitable step in the progress of the "Friendship of Nations." Whether Esperanto proves itself to be the language or not, such a laudable attempt is entitled to a hearing. Hence the last pages of THE CHAUTAUQUAN each month will be turned into an Esperanto school for Chautauquans who are of an experimental turn of mind. Some readings or question matches or other diversions in Esperanto may fittingly occupy a brief space at the close of a Circle meeting.



As the edition of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for September, 1906, is very nearly exhausted, the Chautauqua Press will be glad to secure extra copies which may be in a good state of preservation. They will be paid for at the rate of 15 cents per copy. Address Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y.

MAPS

In our studies in European history Circles and individuals will find great pleasure in clearing up their geographical ideas by means of maps. Some circles will enjoy using an outline map and filling in the places about which they are studying. In the case of "Foundations of Modern Europe" and of Holland also, it will be particularly interesting to follow the changes in Europe which have taken place during the last three hundred years. The Chautauqua Press can furnish excellent outline maps of Europe for a small amount.

ILLUSTRATED LECTURES FOR CHAUTAUQUA READERS.

Members of the C. L. S. C. who have enjoyed the articles in THE CHAUTAUQUAN on American Sculpture and American Painting by Miss Edwina Spencer of Buffalo, N. Y., will be glad to know that it will be possible to secure from her a number of illustrated lectures upon topics relating to the C. L. S. C. Course. Circles which want to draw attention to their work for the coming year could, for instance, arrange for the lecture on Dutch Art early in the autumn. This would arouse interest in the subject and induce people either to join the Circle or to take up at home THE CHAUTAUQUAN series by Professor Zug which will present this subject in detail. Such a lecture would enable Circles to extend their influence and be of real service to the community. The sale of tickets would result in a fund which might be devoted to the purchase of books or other Circle projects. If the Circle alone is not strong enough to carry out the plan, coöperation with an Epworth League, or a Woman's Club, or a missionary society might be very feasible. Miss Spencer is especially well qualified for her work as a lecturer. She is a thorough student, is personally familiar with the subjects which she describes, and presents her material in a practical, educational way which leaves a clear impression. She believes that art has a great mission to perform in this country and her enthusiasm easily communicates itself to her audience. Arrangements can be made for these lectures by writing The Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y. Miss Spencer would be glad to visit small communities whenever possible and if necessary would make special terms to such Circles. The following lectures are available. They are illustrated with the stereopticon:

AMERICAN ART. THREE LECTURES.

1. Colonial and Revolutionary Days; the Beginning of a Native Art.
2. The Middle Period: Years of Growth.
3. Contemporary Artists; Present status of American Art.
A continuation and enlargement of last year's course in THE

C. L. S. C. Round Table

CHAUTAUQUAN. Illustrated by stereopticon, many of the slides being from rare and inaccessible examples of our native painters and sculptors.

Any one of the following series of three lectures may also be given singly.

1. DUTCH ART.

A single lecture designed to supplement the series of articles on Dutch artists by Professor Zug to be studied in the C. L. S. C. Course for this year. Mr. Zug's work will treat of Holland's great masters; and Miss Spencer's lecture will deal with Dutch Art as a whole, its origin, its gift to mankind, and what it stands for in the story of the world's art.

2. THE DEAD CITIES OF SICILY.

One lecture preparatory to the Classical Year in the C. L. S. C. describing these wonderful cities (such as old Syracuse) built by the ancient Greeks on the glorious island of Sicily, when it formed a part of "Magna Graecia." These marvelous Grecian remains, surrounded as they now are by all the picturesque beauty of modern Italian life, tell a story of deep interest. Both the material of the lecture and the pictures illustrating it are to be used for the first time in this country.

3. GREECE TODAY.

A single lecture, also bearing on the Classical Year. It is concerned with modern Greece; its government and social conditions, the Greek Church, the Royal Family, scientific research, education, commerce, manufacture, the Greek men and women of today. The pictures are unique, gathered throughout Greece, and showing Greek scenery, cities, customs and costumes.



C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

*"We study the Word and the Works of God."
"Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."
"Never be Discouraged."*

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.	SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
BRYANT DAY—November 3.	INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY — May 18.
SPECIAL SUNDAY — November, second Sunday.	SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.	INAUGURATION DAY — August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
COLLEGE DAY — January, last Thursday.	ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.	RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.	
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.	
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.	
ADDISON DAY—May 1.	

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR OCTOBER.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "The Friendship of Nations," Part I.
The Present European Equilibrium.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter I. The War of American Independence as a European Struggle, to page 14.

SECOND WEEK—OCT. 8-15.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter I. The War of American Independence as a European Struggle, concluded.

THIRD WEEK—OCT. 15-22.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapters II and III. The French Revolution.

FOURTH WEEK—OCT. 22-29.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "A Reading Journey in Holland." Chapter I. Holland in History, page 40.
"Dutch Art and Artists." Chapter I. Frans Hals and the portrait.



SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

FIRST WEEK.

1. Discussion: Professor Emil Reich and his point of view. (See Preface and Round Table.)
2. Brief Oral Reports, with map review on: The Wars of the "Spanish Succession," the "Austrian Succession," and the "Seven Years War," showing the cause of each and the territorial changes which were brought about. A rough sketch map should be prepared which will make vivid the state of Europe at these different periods. (Maps will be found in histories of Europe, encyclopedias, etc. See also Round Table.)
3. Review and Discussion of first fourteen pages of "Foundations of Modern Europe," bringing out the chief points made by the author.
4. Roll Call: Answered by quotations from all available American histories tending to prove or disprove the assertions of Professor Reich regarding their statements of the cause of the American Revolution. (An interesting book in this connection is "American History and its Geographic Conditions," by Miss Ellen F. Semple.)
5. Review and Discussion of "The Present European Equilibrium."
6. Reading: Selections from recent articles in magazines or reviews bearing upon the "European Equilibrium" or from Jean DeBloch's "The Future of War."

SECOND WEEK.

1. Review of last half of Chapter I in "Foundations of Modern Europe."
2. Discussion of unusual words in the entire chapter.
3. Reading of Rousseau's "Emile" with reading of selections from it.
4. Roll Call: Mention two statements made in this chapter which seem to you especially worth remembering.

5. Study of the article on Frans Hals. Each member should be assigned one of the pictures described, showing how it illustrates the artist's characteristics. All other available pictures should be secured. The monograph on "Hals" in the "Masters in Art Series" (Bates & Guild, Boston, Mass.) contains ten fine half-tones and can be secured for twenty cents. Many good pictures can be found in old magazines.

THIRD WEEK.

1. Brief Character Studies: Mirabeau, Louis XVI., Danton, Robespierre, Madame Roland, and St. Just.
2. Review and Discussion of the French Revolution, omitting details and bringing out clearly the significant steps in its progress.
3. Reading: Browning's "The Lost Leader" with explanation of its significance; Selection from Carlyle's "French Revolution."
4. Book Review: "The Reds of the Midi," by Felix Gras.
5. Oral Report: Victor Hugo's "Ninety-Three," a phase of the French Revolution—see sketch in the C. L. S. C. book for this year, "Studies in European Literature."
6. Reading: Selection from "Ninety-Three."
7. Roll Call: Current Events relating to happenings in Europe.

FOURTH WEEK.

Note: One or more programs each month will be devoted to Holland and the several periods of its history studied in detail. William of Orange and his time, events associated with the Pilgrims, etc., though referred to in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be treated in later programs.

1. Brief review of the Reading Journey to page 40 through the time of William the Silent, summing up the significant features of Dutch history.
2. Oral Reports or Papers: Holland and the House of Burgundy; The Early influence of the towns upon Dutch life; the Great Privilege. (See "Brave Little Holland," W. E. Griffis, "The Story of Holland," Rogers, "Holland and the Hollanders," Meldrum, and encyclopedia accounts of the Hanseatic League, etc.)
3. Map Review of Holland showing its general relation to Europe at the successive periods of its history. (See Round Table.)
4. Roll Call: National Characteristics of the Hollander. (See "Dutch Life in Town and Country" and all available books.)
5. Reading: Selection from Chapter I of "Holland and its People," by De Amicis (a very charming book and though written some years ago, the acknowledged classic on Holland.)
6. Discussion: Let each member bring an answer to the question, "In what respects has Holland influenced the world?"

THE TRAVEL CLUB.

Special Programs for graduate Circles and Clubs Specializing upon the two Dutch Series. (A copy of Baedeker's "Belgium and Holland" is quite indispensable for such clubs.)

FIRST WEEK.

1. Quiz: On the Reading Journey, Part I to page 40 through the time of William the Silent. (The summary in this first article gives a general view, the details of which will be brought out in later programs.)

2. Map Review of Holland showing its general relation to the rest of Europe at the successive periods of its history.
3. Roll Call: National Characteristics of the Hollander. (See "Dutch Life in Town and Country" and all available books.)
4. Oral Reports or Papers: Holland and the House of Burgundy; The Great Privilege; The Early influence of the towns upon Dutch life. (See "The Story of Holland," by Rogers, "Brave little Holland," by W. E. Griffis, encyclopedia accounts of the Hanseatic League, "Holland and the Hollanders," by Meldrum, etc.)
5. Reading: Selection from Chapter I of "Holland and its People," by De Amicis. (A very charming book and, though written years ago, the acknowledged classic on Holland.)

SECOND WEEK.

1. Character Sketch: Charles the V. (See "The Story of Holland," Rogers, histories of Europe, encyclopedias, etc.)
2. Reading: Selections from article entitled "Strange Lineage of a Royal Baby," *Cosmopolitan*, 43:465, September, 1907.
3. Oral Report: The work of Motley as historian of the Netherlands.
4. Paper: Philip II. (See all available histories, encyclopedias, etc.)
5. Oral Reports: Character Sketches of Alva, Don John of Austria, and Alexander of Parma.
6. Paper: William of Orange. (See Library Shelf, encyclopedias, and histories.)
7. Reading: The Assassination of William of Orange. (See Library Shelf in this Magazine.)
8. Roll Call: Answers to the question "Why does William of Orange take rank as one of the world's great men?"
9. Reading: From Chapter of Delft in De Amicis' "Holland and its People," containing references to William of Orange.

THIRD WEEK.

1. Roll Call: Answered by naming educational or religious leaders of the Netherlands from the fourteenth to the sixteenth century and for what each was famous. (See "Brave Little Holland," by W. E. Griffis.)
2. Map Review of Europe in the sixteenth century, especially Germany, the Netherlands, and France.
3. Paper: In what Respects was Holland ahead of other Countries in the Time of William the Silent? (See Bibliography.)
4. Oral Report: Why did Protestantism take one form in Germany and another in Holland?
6. Pronunciation Match on proper names in Chapter I of the Reading Journey. (In the October CHAUTAUQUAN will be found a list of Dutch proper names and their pronunciation.)

FOURTH WEEK.

1. Oral Reports: The Dutch Anabaptists; William Brewster; William Bradford. (See "The Pilgrims in their Three Homes," W. E. Griffis.)
2. Paper: The Pilgrims in Amsterdam. (See above.)
3. Map Review: Showing various localities in England and Holland associated with the Pilgrims.
4. Paper: Social Life of the Pilgrims in Leyden. (See above.)

5. Oral Reports: The Synod of Dordrecht in 1618; when and why and how the Pilgrims emigrated.
6. Roll Call: Explanation of pictures of places in Holland connected with the Pilgrims.



REVIEW QUESTIONS ON THE FRIENDSHIP OF NATIONS.

CHAPTER I. THE PRESENT EUROPEAN EQUILIBRIUM.

1. What is meant by the European equilibrium? 2. By what influences are nations chiefly governed? 3. What do the friendly visits of sovereigns and the enormous European armies signify as to the peace of Europe? 4. What combinations at present support the European balance? 5. To what recent events may this "balance" be traced? 6. What were the objects of the "Triple Alliance" as first planned between Germany and Austria? 7. When and why did Italy join it? 8. What secret treaty of Bismarck's was denounced by this alliance? 9. How were the other European nations affected by the Triple Alliance? 10. Describe "the affair of 1875" and its result. 11. What change in European relations have occurred since 1901? 12. What conditions led to the forming of an Anglo-Japanese alliance in 1902? 13. What did the treaty secure? 14. What statesmen later brought about the Anglo-French alliance? 15. What subjects were discussed in the three conventions which led up to this treaty? 16. What was the most important feature of this Anglo-French alliance? 17. Why was the Morocco situation a delicate one? 18. What is the present state of the question? 19. When and by whom was the Anglo-Russian Convention signed? 20. What three sets of questions does it include? 21. What were the general conclusions reached in the case of each? 22. What effect had this treaty upon India? 23. What are the really effective guaranties of peace?

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "A READING JOURNEY IN THE HOLLOW-LAND."

CHAPTER I.

1. Sketch briefly the history of Holland previous to the fifteenth century. 2. How did the country become subject to the Duke of Burgundy? 3. Trace the family connections which brought Holland under the power of Spain. 4. What treatment did Holland receive at the hands of Charles V.? 5. What further indignities did Philip II. heap upon the country? 6. What champions of the people's liberty now arose and what did they demand? 7. What was Philip's response? 8. How did the Dutch people secure their independence? 9. Who was William the Silent? 10. Against what odds did he have to contend? 11. Sum up the chief events from the death of William to the peace of Westphalia. 12. Describe Holland's various struggles with England in the seventeenth century for naval supremacy. 13. What was Holland's ill fated connection with France from 1795-1815? 14. Why did the union of Belgium in 1815 prove disastrous? 15. Who were the immediate ancestors of Queen Wilhelmina? 16. What was Prince Henry's title before his marriage? 17. What two elements in the Dutch civilization account for its great influence? 18. How did

early Dutch history compare with that of England? 19. How was Holland's influence felt in the Reformation? 20. In what varied ways have the Dutch people proved their genius? 21. What is true of their sense of civic honor? 22. Illustrate Holland's attitude toward freedom of trade? 23. How do Dutchman and American seem to resemble each other?

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON DUTCH ART AND ARTISTS.

1. When do we find the first distinctive school of Dutch art?
2. What were the characteristics of the painting that preceded it?
3. What are the characteristics of the first great Dutch painting?
4. Why is Hals remarkable as a portrait painter?
5. When and where did Hals live?
6. What paintings other than portraits has Hals left us?
7. What were the Shooting Companies?
8. What great difficulties did the painting of the Shooting Companies present?
9. Who was Judith Leyster?
10. How does her work resemble that of Hals?

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. What is meant by Russian nihilism?
2. Who is Mr. Henry Norman?
3. How did France secure possession of Tunis?
4. Who is the present Chancellor of the German Empire?
5. Who are the present Ambassadors of Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, Italy, and Austria to the United States?
6. Name the present Premier and also the President of the French Republic.

1. What was the Order of the Golden Fleece?
2. How extensive was the Dukedom of Burgundy in the fifteenth century?
3. What were some of the important provisions of the "Great Privilege?"
4. Who were the Beggars of the Sea?
5. What was the Massacre of Bartholomew?

1. Who was Van Dyke?
2. What are some of his most famous paintings?



NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

The first session of the Round Table for the New Year brought out a large delegation of Chautauquans. New members of the Class of 1912, enthusiastic and full of eager curiosity, reported themselves ready for work. "I am reminded," said Pendragon as he congratulated the new readers, "of the advice an experienced settlement worker once gave to a young enthusiast about to enter a new field in a distant city. She did not say 'Keep up your courage,' or 'Cling to your ideals' or any of those phrases which we sometimes seem to think are indispensable to the young novitiate, but 'Don't take yourself too seriously!' It's rather a good motto for Chautauquans for sometimes we are in danger of surrounding ourselves with such an atmosphere of serious study that our friends are repelled by our very intensity."

"These two photographs," said Pendragon, "have been sent by an individual reader in Santiago, Chile. They show some of the attractive features of that city. Miss Sailer is a member of the

class of 1908 and has been teaching English History. She writes, "The studies of the English Year have broadened my knowledge and in this way have deepened the interest of my class. I wait eagerly for the arrival of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. It is such a convenient size that I often read the numbers as I travel in the street car." It would seem that people in Chile find it necessary to save time as much as we do in America," commented Pendragon as he opened another letter.

"A year ago," he continued, "you will remember that when we held our 'library' meeting at this time, I told you of the efforts of a reader in Osceola, New York, to secure good reading for a little hamlet where the small library established in her own store represented the chief intellectual center of the region round about. As public opinion did not always sustain her efforts to secure a state traveling library, it was suggested that some of the circles might be glad to lend a hand. I've just received this letter which shows in what friendly fashion the circles responded. Miss Mary L. Cowles writes as follows:"

"We had another 'Traveling Library' during the winter and spring and I think we never have had one that was used more than this one. One boy aged about eighteen read all the books in both libraries (seventy-five volumes), excepting a few of the very deepest. Through the kindness of Chautauquans we have received quite a nucleus of a library. One lady in Ohio sent a number of volumes and magazines which we used in our Circle last winter. I wrote, thanking her for her help and my letter was returned unclaimed. She gave only her initials. A lady in Vermont was the second to respond. She sent several good books and magazines. She said she had taken her course alone, being unable to interest others in her town, and she almost envied those who had congenial people to read with them. The next installment came from a gentleman who is a member of a Circle at Canandaigua, New York. He sent several volumes of the Chautauqua Reading Course, besides several other good books, and also magazines and papers. The last gift came from a Circle at Mount Vernon, New York, and like the other boxes, contained both books and magazines, all of them good to add to our library. We now have almost fifty volumes, and many magazines and papers. These are not yet ready for circulation, but we expect to get them ready to circulate next month. One gentleman who has a summer home here has promised us some books, and I know of a few others who I think will help us a little when they know of our effort to get a library. If you would like a list of the books we have I will send it. We are grateful to those who have so kindly responded to your suggestion. We feel quite encouraged, and think a library here is a possibility. I am very anxious to have a boys' club of some sort during the coming winter. The influences here in the wrong direction are very strong, and we must try to do something to turn the tide. I think we could arrange to have a reading room in a vacant house, but do not know of anyone to take charge of it."

"The wealth of good reading matter," commented Pendragon,

"which many of us throw aside thoughtlessly would keep many a little village supplied with interesting reading. Every circle through its members or elsewhere can find some such center. Why not have a regular meeting toward the close of each year when members may bring such books and magazines as they or their friends can spare and send them to some designated address. In many families children grow up, and move away, leaving books which they do not care to take. Libraries often make their way to some old book store when many of their contents have real present day value. The gifts of a few circles have put 'courage' into a struggling librarian. Don't drop the work now but keep in friendly touch with Miss Cowles."

"You asked last year," said a delegate from Wellsville, New York, "about our Public Library which developed from a Chautauqua Circle. I'm sending you some photographs which will show how it looks at present, for our library is housed in the City Hall. We hope next year to be able to introduce you to our beautiful new building." At Pendragon's request the speaker, Miss Lillian Carpenter, gave some further details. "Our library," she said, "has been the special work of the Monday Club but we trace our pedigree straight back to the early days of Chautauqua when Mr. and Mrs. J. H. Brown of our village spent the summer at the Assembly and were present at the inauguration of the C. L. S. C. They were among the first to join and the Chautauqua Circle established on their return continued to meet for some twenty-five years. In '90-1 when the Circle was studying an 'English Year' a few members held an extra meeting each week for the special study of Shakespeare. The Club thus started proved so interesting that two years later we took the name of Monday Club and became a formal organization. For years the need of a public library had been discussed among us and at this time it came to a focus. The Academy Library had been destroyed by fire but the books of an extinct 'Wellsville Library Association' were at the disposal of the club. The ideas of the club were too altruistic for such narrow scope for a public library was our ideal although the impression had gone abroad that the library was to be for the sole benefit of the Monday Club and much tact was required to overcome various forms of opposition. At nearly every meeting something was done towards the promotion of the cherished idea, our state law concerning the establishment of town libraries was studied and soon we had one of the famous New York State Traveling Libraries, which, by the courtesy of the school board, was placed in one of the unused schoolrooms while the City Hall was being built. It was in charge of the Monday Club,—they were caretakers. In 1894 two hundred

dollars were received from the state for the purchase of books. This appropriation was based upon the value of the books from the old library and those donated by individuals. Of course the founding of a Free Public Library is no small undertaking. Time, toil, patience, and perseverance were required to accomplish such a work. The next year a large sum was added to the library fund by a course of lectures and the club was given the use of a commodious room in the City Hall. The public began at once to show its interest by coming in large numbers for the loan of books. Our city is now giving five hundred dollars yearly for its support and the Monday Club is custodian of the finest Free Public Library in this section of the state. At first it was open for only two days each week but since 1898 it has been open two hours each week day and three hours on Sunday as a reading room.

"During these years we have been slowly accumulating a fund for the proper housing of our library in a home of its own. Our worthy president has trained us to such habits of thrift as welcomed the smallest of additions to our store. Such modest sources of revenue as penny collections and the sale of old rubbers have not been despised while large sums have been added by entertainments or by personal gifts. Our president's significant reticence on several occasions when the library fund was under discussion led us to suspect her of cherishing a secret we might be glad to share. She betrayed no other hint of it, however, until her return from Florida last year, when she announced that Mr. David A. Howe of Williamsport, Pa., a former resident of Wellsville, had offered to give \$15,000 for the erection of a library building as soon as a suitable site should be secured. You can imagine the state of mind of the Monday Club! A very desirable corner lot has now been purchased, plans for a handsome modern building have been accepted and we will soon have a permanent home for our Free Public Library which in these fourteen years has grown from nothing to 8,600 volumes, supplying some 2,000 readers in this and surrounding towns. It is the pride of our city and a factor for better conditions in our community. This is one of the victories of peace and we venture to believe develops character as certainly as if it had been wrought by martial music, swords, and guns. Our club motto has now for us a new significance, "The end crowns the work."



REVIEW QUESTIONS ON FOUNDATIONS OF MODERN EUROPE.

The following Review Questions upon "Foundations of Modern Europe" cover the entire volume, though only three chapters are assigned for study in October. Members may find it convenient to remove these pages and paste them in the book itself.

CHAPTER I. THE WAR OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.

1. In what respects has the influence of France in the American War of Independence been underestimated by Americans? 2. What has been true also of the English attitude? 3. Why have the French failed to emphasize this influence? 4. Why should the American Revolution be looked upon as an international event? 5. Why has Europe since 1815 avoided international wars? 6. What great international wars took place in the eighteenth century? 7. What similar causes promoted the unity of Italy and the American War of Independence? 8. What ideal motives are usually attributed to the rebellious colonists in the American Revolution? 9. Why did the Americans cheerfully join the British against the French from 1755 to 1762? 10. How did the American "Hinterland" compare with that of other countries? 11. What predictions were made regarding American secession from England? 12. What was the true secret of American opposition to Great Britain? 13. Contrast the position of Lord Chatham after 1763 with that of Bismarck in 1866. 14. Why was France "almost more dangerous when on the defensive?" 15. Show why the course pursued by Maria Theresa in 1756 was wise and that of the French government weak. 16. How did Katharine II. of Russia show her political wisdom at about this time? 17. Why was it unnecessary for England to keep up her attitude of rancor toward France? 18. Why unwise? 19. Why was the influence of the Encyclopaedists so far reaching? 20. Who was Beaumarchais? 21. By what means did he accomplish his purpose of revenge? 22. What recognition has his work received? 23. What was the strategic problem of the War of Independence? 24. Show the importance of the struggle off Cape Henry. 25. Show how battles which are not dramatic have sometimes had far reaching influences.

CHAPTER II. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION. (1.)

1. Why is the French Revolution the most important event of modern history? 2. What different forms did the Revolution assume in France and in Germany? 3. In what general respects was the reign of Louis XVI. superior to that of Louis XV.? 4. What criticism is made of the statements of Arthur Young? 5. Illustrate the fact that the different parts of France had little in common in the seventeenth century. 6. How and why had this changed by the time of Louis XVI.? 7. What effect had this upon the education of the people? 8. What significance had la grande peur? 9. What were the conspicuous qualities of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette? 10. In what respects was Mirabeau a remarkable man? 11. Who formed the famous National Assembly? 12. What important point was carried by the third estate? 13. How was the importance of the French Revolution underestimated at this period? 14. What remarkable event took place on August 4, 1789? 15. Why did the French Revolution arouse such interest in the neighboring governments?

CHAPTER III. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION. (2.)

1. What effect did the attempted flight of Louis XVI. have upon the French people? 2. By what dangers were they menaced? 3. Why and how did the powers misconstrue the situation in France? 4. What was the famous proclamation of the Duke of Brunswick? 5. What were the September Massacres? 6. What similar illustration of the mob spirit was shown in England during

her civil war? 7. What was the effect of the battle of Valmy? 8. What great spectacle did France present at this time? 9. How can "The Terror" be explained? 10. What important service was rendered by the Committee of Public Safety? 11. What were some of the great reforms instituted by the "Convention"? 12. What striking personalities show the tremendous energy which displayed itself in France at this time? 13. How did the army come to dominate the country?

CHAPTER IV. NAPOLEON. (1.)

1. In what respects was Napoleon a complex character? 2. Why is it impossible to estimate him truly? 3. What influence may his Corsican origin have had upon Napoleon? 4. Show how Napoleon was the natural culmination of the French Revolution. 5. Describe his personal qualities. 6. To what causes are his military successes due? 7. Why are they considered "classical campaigns?" 8. Who were some of the monarchs and statesmen pitted against Napoleon at different times? 9. What was, in general, the cause of his overthrow? 10. What influences first made him general-in-chief of the Italian army? 11. How did his genius show itself in his Lombardy campaign? 12. What influence had this success upon him?

CHAPTER V. NAPOLEON. (2.)

1. What circumstances led to Napoleon's invasion of Egypt? 2. What peculiar influence did Egypt exercise upon him? 3. What led him to abandon this field? 4. What victories did he achieve in the next three years? 5. By what two great processes did he help to prepare the way for German unity? 6. What work did he do for French education? 7. Describe his share in constructing the famous Code Napoleon. 8. How has the code influenced other countries? 9. Why did France receive the news of the victory at Austerlitz with relative coldness? 10. Compare the attitude of France toward Jeanne d'Arc and Napoleon. 11. When and how did the Holy Roman Empire fall? 12. How did Napoleon's victories at Jena and Auerstaedt reveal the weakness of Prussia? 13. How did Napoleon deal with Poland? 14. In what way does this seem to have been a blunder? 15. How was Prussia reorganized?

CHAPTER VI. NAPOLEON. (3.)

1. Why is it difficult to estimate fairly plans of Napoleon which seem unwise? 2. How long did Europe believe in the invincibility of Napoleon? 3. What may be said of England's view that she saved Europe from Napoleon? 4. What points does our author make regarding Wellington's campaign in Spain? 5. How did the Spanish in the Peninsular War dig their own grave? 6. Why did Austria declare war upon Napoleon at this time. 7. Describe the three sections of this campaign. 8. Compare Napoleon's attitude toward human life with that of other European sovereigns at this time. 9. Who was Metternich? 10. How was the sinister influence of the Hapsburgs borne out by the experience of Napoleon? 11. What can be said of Napoleon's oriental dream? 12. What principles of strategy did Napoleon consciously violate in going to Russia? 13. Why was Russia not worth having at this time? 14. What possibilities did Turkey present?

CHAPTER VII. NAPOLEON. (4.)

1. Why were the sovereigns insincere in their claim to be

liberating Europe by destroying Napoleon? 2. What countries stood together against him? Were they naturally homogeneous? 3. What two influences resulted in his fall? 4. Why was Austria's attitude toward Napoleon short sighted? 5. Why was Russia's attitude more statesmanlike? 6. What was Prussia's position at this time? 7. How did Napoleon's resources in 1813 compare with those of his enemies? 8. What strange error did he make at this time? 9. Describe the campaign around Dresden. 10. How were his attempts at peace negotiations thwarted? 11. What was the Battle of the Nations and its result? 12. Why were Napoleon's campaigns of the Seine barren successes? 13. What influences in France were working against him? 14. What different qualities of the nation came to the front at this time? 15. Illustrate the extraordinary attitude of Napoleon's friends at his abdication. 16. How did Louis XVIII. show his Bourbon characteristics? 17. How does the French Revolution compare with other great revolutions? 18. Describe the return of Napoleon and his attempt to regain the confidence of France. 19. Describe the events of June 16 and 18, 1815. 20. Why is it probable that a victory by Napoleon at Waterloo would not have saved him?

CHAPTER VIII. THE REACTION.

1. With what purpose did the sovereigns of Europe meet at Vienna in 1814? 2. What characteristics were here exhibited by the Prussian Humboldt? 3. At what points were the interests of the Powers clashing? 4. By what decisions did Talleyrand succeed in guiding the congress to the advantage of France? 5. What part did Metternich play? 6. Show how the unwritten legislation of the congress was its worst feature. 8. What deep laid plans did Alexander of Russia attempt to exploit at Aix-la-Chapelle? 9. How were Italy and Spain treated? 10. What was the mental state of the people in Germany and Austria at this time? 11. Describe the Greek revolt in 1829. 12. What relation do we find in Europe between political events and intellectual movements? 13. How may "classical literature" be defined? 14. How did the Romantic movement in Europe differ in general from the classical ideal? 15. Illustrate this in the case of the poetry of this time. 16. How does this same condition apply to music? 17. Illustrate it in the case of Chopin. 18. How was the Romantic movement felt in philosophy? 19. What admirable results did it accomplish in historical research? 20. What great French novelist arose at this time? 21. In what does his greatness consist?

CHAPTER IX. THE REVOLUTIONS.

1. How and why does the attitude of France toward freedom of the press differ from that of England? 2. What caused the revolution of 1830 in France? 3. What great influence did it have upon other parts of Europe? 4. How did the character of Louis-Philippe reveal itself in various events of his reign? 5. Why was the revolution of 1848 the result? 6. What other countries at once rose in revolt? 7. What two reasons make the Hungarian revolution one of first importance? 8. What great qualities had Kosuth? 9. Give the tragic tale of the Hungarian Revolution. Why was it not a complete failure? 10. Why did the revolutions in Austria and Austrian Italy fail? 11. What scientific interest had meanwhile been cultivated in France? 12. What French thinker now turned philosophical thought in a new direction? 13. What were some of the ideas set forth in his philosophy? 14. What men

C. L. S. C. Round Table

and countries have been influenced by his thinking? 15. What famous German also contributed much to the study of the exact sciences at this time? 16. Describe the influence of Darwin. 17. What were some of the unwholesome influences of this period of positive science?

CHAPTER X. THE UNITY OF ITALY.

1. What five groups of political events in Europe belong to the years from 1851 to 1871?
2. What great changes in the position of the various powers took place in these years?
3. What striking fact is true of Italian unity in Roman times compared with Italian unity in 1871?
4. How did both Italian character and circumstances work against the unity of the country?
5. What was the policy of Cavour?
6. Why did he send Italian troops to the Crimea?
7. How did the exploit of Orsini aid Cavour's plans?
8. What was Napoleon III.'s idea of the Unity of Italy?
9. Why did Cavour acquiesce in this view?
10. What were the results of Magenta and Solferino?
11. How did Napoleon's seeming treachery affect the Italians?
12. How was the unity of the nation finally accomplished?

CHAPTER XI. THE UNITY OF GERMANY.

1. Why does the Roman ideal of a European nation seem unlikely?
2. Show how the different nations have gradually established themselves on the basis of a common language.
3. Describe the political confusion which existed under the Holy Roman Empire.
4. What degrading social conditions existed in Germany?
5. Show how German unity first grew up through German literature.
6. What was the effect upon Germans of the disasters of 1805-7?
7. What peculiar national conditions have always existed under the Hapsburgs?
8. Show how the Silesian Wars of Frederick the Great had a great influence upon Germany and Austria.
9. Compare Prussia and Austria in 1850 as to their fitness to unite Germany.
10. How did other great men in Germany prepare the way for Bismarck?
11. What were some of the personal qualities and acquirements which gave Bismarck remarkable command of the political situation?
12. How is his insight into conditions shown in his plans for German unity?
13. Against what adversaries did he have to contend?
14. What two fine qualities are noteworthy in his character?
15. Describe the war with Denmark and show how it contributed to his plans.
16. What was Prussia's attitude to him at this time?
17. How was the incompetence of Austria shown in the war of 1866?

CHAPTER XII. THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR.

1. What criticisms have been made upon Bismarck for bringing on the Franco-German war?
2. By what considerations was he prompted?
3. What was the condition of the French army at this time?
4. Why was Napoleon III. unable to cope with the situation?
5. How did France attempt to bring on a war?
6. What can be said of Bismarck's coöperation in this attempt?
7. How did Austria act at this time?
8. What did the war prove as to French generalship?
9. How can this be accounted for?
10. What may be said of Thiers and Gambetta in this crisis?
11. What crushing terms did Bismarck make with France?
12. What was the effect upon Germany.

EPILOGUE.

1. Why has Europe no pretext at present for an international war?
2. Why does Austria survive in spite of internal weaknesses?
3. Compare Europe and America today with respect to homogeneity.

C. L. S. C. COURSE 1908-9

FOUNDATIONS OF MODERN EUROPE, by
Emil Reich.

SEEN IN GERMANY, by Ray Stannard
Baker.

STUDIES IN EUROPEAN LITERATURE.
MAN AND THE EARTH, by Nathaniel
Southgate Shaler.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN, September, 1908,
to May 1909, inclusive.

BRIEF MEMORANDA

Containing
Twenty-Five
Review Questions

To members: The following pages contain a copy of the list of questions furnished to readers who wish to review the year's course and add seals to their diplomas. They may be used by the reader for his own notes and as a record of his year's work. A duplicate of this pamphlet is mailed at the beginning of the year to all members, subscribers to THE CHAUTAUQUAN of course being so designated. It contains these review questions, printed on a good quality of writing paper, to be answered in ink and returned to Chautauqua Institution for credit. The pamphlet also includes the form of application for the annual certificate, and the blank for securing the "Recognized Reading" seal.

In making use of the review questions you are not required to write the answers from memory, but they should be given in your own language.

1. Why should the American Revolution be looked upon as an international event?

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2. Why is the French Revolution the most important event of modern history?

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3. What was the famous proclamation of the Duke of Brunswick?

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4. In what respects was Napoleon a complex character?

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C. L. S. C. Round Table

5. By what two great processes did Napoleon help to prepare the way for German unity?

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6. Who was Metternich?

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7. With what purpose did the sovereigns of Europe meet at Vienna in 1814?

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8. What caused the revolution of 1830 in France?

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9. If it is a fact that "mankind is made constant by fight," does this necessarily imply war?

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10. Compare Europe and America today with respect to homogeneity.

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11. What are some of the common things in which Germany improves upon America?

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12. Mention some of the features of the training of a German soldier.

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13. What is the attitude of the German government toward scientific achievement?

14. Mention some of the unique features of the Stiftung in Jena.

15. What did Molière seek to accomplish in his comedy of *Tartuffe*?

16. How was it received by the community?

17. What historical foundation have the novels of Dumas?

18. What did Zola attempt to do in the *Rougon-Macquart* series?

19. What is the secret of Schiller's influence in Germany?

20. Why does the play of Faust possess such intense interest?

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21. Quote some passage by Maeterlinck which shows how important he considers the life of the spirit.

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22. In what locality has Sudermann placed the scenes of most of his novels?

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23. In what different ways is modern man taxing the resources of the earth?

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24. What are the different kinds of solar energy available for man?

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25. What four great valleys in the United States especially lend themselves to irrigation?

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WHITE SEAL MEMORANDA

Containing
Seventy-Five
Review Questions

Foundations of Modern Europe

1. What was the true secret of American opposition to Great Britain?

2. Show the importance of the struggle off Cape Henry.

3. What different forms did the French Revolution assume in France and in Germany?

4. What remarkable event took place on August 4, 1789?

5. How can "The Terror" be explained?

6. What were some of the great reforms instituted by the "Convention?"

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7. Describe Napoleon's personal qualities.

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8. Who were some of the monarchs and statesmen pitted against Napoleon at different times?

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9. What was Napoleon's share in constructing the famous Code Napoleon?

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10. What period of Napoleon's career is marked by the congress of foreign princes at Erfurt in 1808?

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11. What principles of strategy did Napoleon consciously violate in going to Russia?

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12. Why was Russia not worth having at this time?

13. Why were the sovereigns insincere in their claim to be liberating Europe by destroying Napoleon?

14. Illustrate the extraordinary attitude of Napoleon's friends at his abdication.

15. Why was the unwritten legislation of the congress of Vienna its worst feature?

16. What great influence did it have upon other parts of Europe?

17. What great qualities had Kossuth?

18. What was the policy of Cavour?

19. What causes have prevented Italy from becoming a great nation?

20. What were some of the personal qualities and acquirements which gave Bismarck remarkable command of the political situation?

21. Why did he refuse to humiliate Austria unnecessarily in the war of 1866?

22. What criticisms have been made upon Bismarck for bringing on the Franco-German war?

23. What important contributions to civilization are made by the diversity of European peoples?

Seen in Germany

24. Mention some of the common things in Germany which are owned by the government.

25. What are some of the striking qualities of the Kaiser's character?

26. How does the German type of soldier differ from his English and American counterparts?

27. Why is it probable that no civilized workman in the world would change places with the German workman?

28. How has military service affected the German working-man?

29. For what achievements is Professor Haeckel distinguished?

30. What varied qualities has he shown in his long life?

31. What is the purpose of the Reichsanstalt?

32. How does it render service to practical mechanics?

33. What two great industries have been promoted by Dr. Abbe?

34. How is the best quality of work insured in each?

35. What are some of Germany's laws relating to ship building?

36. What progressive methods may be observed in the German schools?

37. What is true of the recent growth of German cities?

38. How does the German show that he is alive to world interests?

Studies in European Literature

39. What event was the origin of the Song of Roland?

40. What gives Montaigne's essays so high a place in French literature?

41. What great historical struggle is portrayed in Victor Hugo's "Ninety-Three?"

42. Who are the most famous French short story writers?

43. How is Dumas' dramatic skill shown in his novels?

44. Of what series of stories by Balzac does Eugenie Grandet form a part?

45. Why has this story exerted such a powerful influence?

46. What marked contrasts may be noted between the work of George Sand and that of George Eliot?

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47. What were the ruling ideas expressed in George Sand's earlier books?

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48. How is Zola's love of scientific realism shown in "Le Rêve" as in other of his books?

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49. Of what famous plays is M. Rostand the author?

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50. What are some of the characteristics which give the play *Cyrano de Bergerac* high rank?

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51. How is Lessing looked upon at the present day?

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52. What are the teachings of Nathan the Wise?

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53. What effect did the friendship of Goethe and Schiller have upon each of them?

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54. Why is Goethe considered the master of poets?

55. Why is the second part of Faust especially difficult to understand?

56. Quote the lines which set forth Faust's salvation.

57. What remarkable qualities has Heine's "Book of Songs?"

58. How have Maeterlinck's later works shown a finer philosophy of life than did his earlier ones?

59. Why does "The Sunken Bell" seem something more than a simple folk tale?

60. What noble thought do you feel underlies the play?

61. How was Sudermann influenced by the ethics of Nietzsche?

62. How was Ibsen influenced by the events of 1870 in Europe?

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63. What effect had "The Pillars of Society" and other plays upon the public?

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64. How have his plays set up a new standard for the theater?

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Man and the Earth

65. Why is man likely to remain upon the earth for a long time?

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66. What possibilities can we foresee in the use of wind?

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67. What difficulties make an "aluminum age" likely to be very far in the future?

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68. What increase in agricultural resources due to irrigation is likely to be brought about within the next century?

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69. In what way may we be able in future to win land from the waters?

70. State some striking fact regarding the "problem of the Nile."

71. How has man recklessly destroyed much soil that might be of use to him?

72. Mention some of the resources of the sea which may be extended in the future.

73. How is future man likely to become of a higher grade physically?

74. What would probably happen if a comet struck the earth?

75. What much-needed change in our methods of teaching science must come in the future?

A Short Course in Esperanto

I. Vocabulary--Grammar.

Esperanto may be compared to chess. Anyone can learn the moves of the game in half an hour, but knowing the moves does not make a chess player. Still, a great deal of enjoyment may be derived from the practice of the game even in the very early stages, and thus it is with Esperanto. You can learn Esperanto grammar in half an hour; that does not make you an Esperantist, but you can begin to read and to write at once and obtain a great deal of enjoyment while perfecting yourself until you can meet another Esperantist and sustain a conversation with him.

VOCABULARY.

A

a t. of adj. (p. 1)
abaf' abbot
abef' bee
abl' fir ([journal])
abon' subscribe
acer' maple
acid' acid, sour
act' buy
ad' d. duration. (6)
adieu good-bye
admir' admire
admon' admonish
ador' adore
adult' adult
air' air [adultery]
afabf' affable, kind
afekf' to be affected
afer' affair, business
matter
afrank frank a
ag' act [letter]
agi' eagle
agord' tune (instr.)
agrabil' agreeable
ag' age
aj' garlic
aja' ever; *kis* who
hia ej who
aj' d. concrete
ideas (p. 6)
akesf' to hasten
akoont' accent [fr.
aksoopt' accept,
welcome
aksopit' hawk
akir' acquire
ahn' pimple [pany]
akompan' accompany
ahn' sharp [per
akrid' grass-hopper
ahus' axie [inan
ahus' deliver a w
ahus' wave
ai to
aisaud' lark (bird)
ai' other
aimenai' at least
almoz' alms
alt' high
alterm' alternate
alud' allude
almet' match
am' love ([lucifer])
amas' crowd, mass
ambai' both
ambos' anvil
amef' starch

amik' friend
amplik' extent
amuz' amuse
an' d. member (p. 5)
anas' duck
angif' eel
angul' corner,
angel' angel [angle]
anim' soul
ankau' also
ankorau' yet, still
ankor' anchor
anone' announce
anear' goose [of
instead
ant's. of pres. part.
act. (p. 5)
antau' before
antikv' old (hist.)
apart' separate,
adj.
apartan' belong
apenau' scarcely
aper' appear
apog' lead (vb.)
April' April
aprobf' approve
apud' near, by
ar' d. collection (6)
arano' spider
ari' tree
ard' bow, fiddle
arde' heron
arder' slate
argif' clay
argent' silver
ark' arch, bow
art' art
artifile' cunning
artik' joint [(p. 4)
as e. of pres. tense
at'e. of pr. part.
atakl' attack [(4)
atene' attempt
atend' wait, expect
atent' attentive
atest' attest certify
ating' attain, ar
atut' trump [rive at
au' or. aui . aif
either.. or
aus' bear
August' August
auskult' listen
autun' autumn
av' grandfather
avar' covetous
avaf' hazel nut
aven' oats

aventur' adventure
avort' warn [for
avid' covet, eager
azem' ass, donkey
azot' nitrogen

B

babil' chatter
bagato' trifle
bak' baks
bala' sweep
balano' sway,
swing, (tr.)
balbut' stammer
baldau' soon
balon' whale
bam' bathe (tr.)
bant' bow (of ribb.)
bapt' baptize
bar' bar, obstruct
barafy' struggle
bard' beard
barbir' barber
baraf' keg, barrel
bank' coat tail
baaston' stick
bat' beat
batal' fight
bed' bed (garden)
bedau' pity, re
bek' beak (grot
bef' beautiful, fine
ben' bless
benk' bench
ber' berry
best' beast, animal
betuf' birch (tree)
bezen' need, want
ben' goods, estate
bler' beer
bind' bind (books)
bird' bird
blank' white
blisk' cry (of beasts)
blind' blind
blond' fair (of hair)
blow' blow
blu' blue (riage (g))
bo'd. relat. by mar
boat' boat
buf' bark (dog's)
bol' boil (intr.)
bon' good
bor' bore (tr.)
bord' shore, bank
border' border hem
bora' bourse, ex
bot' boot [change
bute' bottle
bow' ox

braek' arm
bram' bream
brand' branch
brand' brandy
(prod. of still)

brasik' cabbage
brat' shelf
brid' bridle
brick' brick
brif' shine (intr.)
brod' embroidery
brug' scald
bros' brush
bru' noise
brul' burn (intr.)
brun' brown
brust' chest, breast
brut' brute, cattle
bub' lad, urchin
bul' slaughter

but' toad
but' ringlet, curl
but' clod, ball
bully' bulb, onion
bulk' roll (bread)
burd' drone (ins.)
burg' citizen
burdon' bud
bul' mouth
buter' butter
butik' shop
buton' button

C

osed' to yield
cajan' cornflower
cel' aim, object
cent' cent (coin)
cent hundred
cerb' brain, mind
cert' certain, sure
cov' deer [ing
cotor' rest, remain
offer' cypher, nu
cigar' cigar [meral
cigared' cigarette
clign' awan
olken' stork
sim' bug
cindr' ash, cinder
eir' shoe-polish
cirkenstand' cir
cumstance
cirkular' circular
eff' cite, mention
citron' lemon
ein' inch

C

čagron' grieve(tr.)
 čamb'r room
 čan' cock (of a gun)
 čap' cap
 čapeł hat
 čapt's chapter
 čar for, because
 čariatan' charlatan
 čarm charm [tan]
 čarn'l hinge
 čarpont' carpentry
 čas hunt, chase
 čast' chaste
 ča at, with
 čef chief
 čam' shirt
 čan' chain
 čar' cherry
 čork' coffin
 čerp' draw (from
 any source)
 čes cease, desist
 čeval' horse
 či d. proximity : tie
 there, tie ē here
 čia every (kind)
 čiam always
 čieeverywhere(ner
 čiel in every man-
 ner heaven, sky
 čies everybody's
 čir' crumble, crease
 čir'on' rag
 čikan' chicanery
 čio everything, all
 čiom all of it [out
 čirkau' round, ab-
 čiu each, every one
 čir' chisel, carve
 ēj' d. masc. affect.
 diminutives (p. 6)
 ču whether : asks
 a question

D

da is used instead
 of *de* after words
 expressing
 weight or mea-
 sure : fundo da
 viando a pound
 of meat
 daktif' date (fruit)
 danc' dance
 dand' dandy
 dangor' danger
 dank' thank
 dat' date (time)
 dat' endure, last
 do of, from, with
 pass. part. by
 do' becoming
 Decembr' Dec'ber
 deois' decide (tr.)
 deisif' decypher
 dedik' dedicate
 defend' defend
 doge' thaw
 dejor' be on duty
 dek ten
 deklik' slope

deksib' right-hand
 delir' be delirious
 demand' ask
 dens' dense, close
 dent' tooth
 denunc' denounce
 depend' depend.
 des the (ju.. des)
 the . , the
 design' design
 detail' detail
 detru' destroy
 dev' must, dev'ig
 compel
 deviz' device, motto
 dezert' (the) desert
 dezir' desire, wish
 Di' God
 diabol' devil
 dibob' debauchery
 difekt' to damage
 differ' differ
 difin' define, des-
 ide' like [tine
 difit' thick, stout
 difit' dictate
 dilig' diligent
 dimand' Sunday
 dir' say, tell
 direkt' direct, steer
 dire d. separ. (p. 5)
 diskont' discount
 dispon' dispose
 disput' dispute
 disting' distinguish
 distr' distract
 driv' divine, guess
 divers' various, di-
 divid' divide [verse
 do then, according-
 dol' sweet [ly
 dolor' pain, ache
 dom' house
 domaf' (it is) a pity
 don' give [sent
 donac' make pre-
 dorlet' codille
 dorm' sleep
 storm' thorn
 dor' (the) back
 drap' woollen cloth
 dra' thrash
 dress' train (anim.)
 drink' drink (in ex-
 tridr' drug [cess
 drov' drown, sink
 du two
 dub' doubt
 duk' duke [whilst
 dum' during, while,
 dung' hire(servant)

E

ē t. of adv. (p. 1)
 eban' even, smooth
 ebi'd. possibility (6)
 eg' d. abet. idea. (6)
 eo even (adv.)
 edif' edify
 eduk' educate, rear
 edz' husband
 efekti' real, actual

efik' have effect
 eg' d. increase (p. 6)
 equal' equal
 eh' echo
 ej' d. place allot-
 ted to (6)
 ek' d. sudden or
 beginning act (3)
 eks' ex- (who has
 been)
 eksit' excite
 eksurs' trip
 eksup' dispatch
 eksuter outside
 ekstrem' crush out
 extrem' extreme
 eksamer' examine
 eksompl' example
 eksoro' exercise
 eksoti' banish
 eksist' exist (mong
 eti out of, from a-
 elefant' elephant
 eksit' choose [(6)
 em' d. propensity
 embara' puzzle
 embusk' ambush
 enigm' puzzle (take
 entrepren' under-
 enu' be wearied
 eny' envy
 er' d. unit (p. 6)
 erar' error, mistake
 erinas' hedgehog
 ermit' hermit
 erg' narrow
 except' except
 eksad' squadros
 esoper' hope
 espol' explore
 exprim' express
 estim' esteem
 exting' extinguish
 esti' d. chief (p. 6)
 eskaed' scaffold
 esti' d. diminution (6)
 estu' story (ol
 house)
 stund' extend (tr.)
 etarn' eternal
 evit' avoid
 exok' pike (fish)

F

fab' bean
 fabel' tale, story
 fabel' fable
 fabrik' factory
 facil' easy
 fadon' thread
 fagi' beech-tree
 fajf' whistle
 fajf' file (tool)
 fajf' fire
 fak' compartment
 fakt' fact
 faktur' invoice
 fal' fall [grass
 fal' mow, cut
 fal' fold
 fal' falcon
 fal' falsify
 fam' fame, rumour

famill' family
 fand' cast, melt
 fantom' ghost
 far' do, make
 faring' pharynx
 farm take on lease
 fart' be(well or un-)
 farun' flour (well)
 fast' bundle
 fast' fast (vb.)
 faulk' jaws, gully
 favor' favour
 fazan' pheasant
 febr' fever
 Februar' February
 fed' less, sediment
 fel'm' fairy
 fel' hide, fleece
 felid' happy, lucky
 felt' felt
 femur' thigh
 fend' split, rive (tr.)
 fenestr' window
 fer' iron
 ferdak' deck (ship)
 ferm' shut, close
 fervor' zeal
 fest' festival
 feston' banquet
 flano' brotrotted
 fil' fibre
 fid' to rely upon
 fidof' faithful
 flor' proud
 fig' fig [present
 figur' image, re-
 fil' son
 filik' sera
 fin' end, finish (tr.)
 finger' finger
 firm' firm
 fil' fil
 flam' flame
 flank' side, flank
 flar' smell (tr.)
 flat' flatter
 flav' yellow
 hog' nurse (the
 flieks' bend [sick
 filk' patch
 flirt' fit, flirt
 fluk' flake
 flor' flower
 flos' raft
 far' flow
 flug' fly (yb.)
 fluid' fluid
 flut' flute
 feir' fair (subst.)
 fo' time (three times
 fo'ay' hay [sec.)
 feok' seal (animal)
 fol' leaf, sheet
 fond' found, start
 font' spring, fount
 fountains' fountain
 for forth, out, away
 forges' forget
 forg' forge, smithy
 fork' fork
 form' shape
 formik' ant
 form' stove, furnace
 fort' strength

fotlik' strong (to
fot' dig [resist])
foxt' post, stake
frag' strawberry
fray' spars
frak' dress coat
frakas' shatter
fraksoen' ash [son
framason' freemasonry
frand'-a's sweets,
dainties
frang' fringe
frap' hit, strike
frat' brother
frasi' bachelor
frams' foreign
fronez' crazy, mad
frös' fresh new
frizon' rogue
friz' dress (hair)
fromaf' cheese
frost' frost
froz' rub
fru' early
frugileg' rook
frukt' fruit
frunt' forehead
ftiz' phthisis
fuig' root
fulm' lightning
funm' smoke
fund' bottom [station
fundument'] founda-
tions
funobr' funeral
funel' funnel
fung' mushroom
funt' pound
furag' forage
furoz' rage
fus' bungle
fu't foot (measure)

G
garf' gay, merry
gan' gain, earn
gas' gall
gaioz' rubber-shoe
gamaf' gaiter
gant' glove [tee
garanti'] guaran-
garb' sheep, shock
gard' guard [gle
gargar' rinse, gar-
gas' gas
gast' guest
gazet' newspaper
ge'd. both sexes (s)
genera' general
(military)
gant' tribe
geno' knee
gest' gesture
glaci' ice
glad' to iron
gian' acorn
glas' glass, tumbler
glat' smooth
glav' sword
glit' glide, slide
glob' globe
glor' glory

glu' glue
glut' swallow (vb.)
gorg' throat
grady' graceful
grad' degree
graf' earl, count
grain' a grain, pip
grand' great, tall
gras' fat
grat' scratch [late
gratu'] congratula-
grav' important
graved' pregnant
gravur' engrave
gren' grain, corn
grif' gruel
grifel' slate-pencil
grill' cricket (insect)
grind' to grate
griz' grey [(intr.)
gris' gooseberry
grif' crane (bird)
grup' group
gudr' tar [age
gum' gum, mucil-
guard' barrel organ
gust' taste
gut' drop, drip
guovn'-issimo' go-
verness [literary]
gvaref' guard (mil-
itary) to guide

G
garden' garden
gem' groan
gen' incommod
general' general
gentil' polite [adj.
germ' germ
gi' it
gil' bump
giraf' giraffe
giu' until, as far as
goj' joy, glad
gu' enjoy
gust' exact, right

H
ha ah
half' halj
hal'k to chop [halj
hal'f great room,
halndz' bad exhalation
half' stop (intr.)
har' hair
hard' harden
haring' herring
harp' harp [less]
haut' skin, (hair)
hav' have [bour
haven' port, har-
hedor' ivy
hejm' home
hejt' heat (vb.)
hej' clear, glaring
help' help
hepat' liver
herb' grass
heros' inherit

herc' hero
herold' yesterday
hipokrit' feign
hirud' leech [(bird)
hirund' swallow
histrik' polypine
ho! oh
hediāu' to-day
hek' hook
hom' man
honest' honest
honor' honour
hort' shame
hor' hour
horda' barley
horloj' clock, w'tch
hosti' sacred host
huf' hoof
humil' humble
humor' humour, hum' dog [temper

H
haco' chaos
heml' chemical
himer' chimera
holer' cholera
hor' chorus, choir

I
i t. of infinitive (4)
ia' some (any) kind
ihi' for some (any)
cause, reason
iun' at some (any)
time, ever, once
id' d. descend of (6)
ido' idea
ie' some anywhere
ieli' some- anyhow
ies' some- anyone's
ig' d. causing to be
(p. 6)

ii' d. becoming (6)

iii' d. instrument (6)

iiii' they, them

Humil' illuminate

imag' imagine

imit' imitate

impel' empire

impilk' entangle

impre' impression

felt, influence

in' d. feminines (6)

inoff' provoke, incite

Ind' d. worthy of (6)

indign' indignant

indulg' to be indul-

infan' child [gent]

infekt' infect

infer' hell

influ' influence

ing' d. holder (p. 6)

iniciat' initiate

ink' ink

inklin' inclined to

insekt' insect

insid' ensnare

instig' instigate

instru' teach

insulf' island
insult' insult, abuse
int' past part. act.
intend' intend [(4)
inter' between,
among
interest' interest
intern' inner, inside
intr' intestine
intrig' to plot
invit' invite
i' some, anything
i'en' a little, some,
ir' go [rather
is d. past tense (4)
is' d. profession (6)
it'd. past part. p.(4)
is' some-, anyone
isef' isolate

J

j. t. of the plural (2)
ja' in fact
jak' jacket
jam already
Januar' January
jar' year
je indefinite pre-
position (a)
jen beheld! lo!
je' yes
ju-daa' the..the
jug' yoke
jugland' walnut
jud' judge
juk' itch
Jull' July
jum' young
jung' to couple,
harness
Juny' June
jup' petticoat, skirt
just' just, righteous
juvel' jewel

K

kad' pap
kadra' frame
kaduk' frail
kaf' coffee
kag' cage
kahet' dutch tile
kai' and [ered book
kajor' paper cov-
kajut' cabin, hut
kai' corn (on foot)
kaikef' boiler
kalo' carriage
kalk' lime
kalkuf' reckon
kalaon' pants
kalumut' slander

Esperanto

kimb' bill of ex-	hol' neck	kram' tap, spigot	lak's lax, diarrhoea
change	holmas' sausage	kran' skull	lakt' milk
kamel' camel	holteg' colleague	kravat' cravat	lam' lame
kamen' fire-place	holteky' collect	kre' creates	lamp' lamp
kamer' camera	haler' angry	kre'd believes	lam' wool
kamp' field	halom' dove	kre'm cream [wild	land' land, country
kan' cane	halor' column	kre'm' horse-radish	lang' tongue
kanan' hemp	halor' colour	kreak' grow, in-	lantern' lantern
kanal' scoundrel	halum' collar	krat' chalk [creas-	lanug' down, fluff
kanap'sofa, lounge	ham' comma	kreve' burst [intr.	lard' bacon
kanart' canary	ham' comb [tr.	kor' cry, shout	large' broad, wide
kande' candle	ham' commerce	korib' to sift	laring' larynx
kanior' cray fish,	ham' trade	korim' crime	larm' tear [of eye]
kan' sing [cancer	hamf' comfort	kipil' crippled [tc	las' leave, let
kap' head	hamis' commission	korim' hook to, cling	last' last, latest
kapab' capable	komit' committee	korom' besides, if	lau according to
kapel' chapel	komit' clerk [see	korom' addition to	laub' green arbour
kapre' goat	komos' chest of	koron' crown	leud' praise
kaprid' whim	drawers	koroz' to cruise	laut' loud, aloud
kaput' catch	kompat' compare	krus' jug, pitcher	lyv' vrash
kar' dear	kompat' to pity	krus' cross	loolon' lesson
karaf' carafe, de-	komplex' obliging-	krus' raw	led' leather
karb' coal [carter	noss	krusel' cruel	leg' read
kard' thistle	kompost' set [type]	krus' leg	legom' vegetable
karos' caress	komprorn' under-	krus' steep	leg' law
karot' carrot	stand	kubut' elbow	lek' lick
karoy' carp (fish)	komun' common	kudr' sew	len' lentil
kart' card, map	kon' know [be ac-	kuf' woman's cap	lenut' freckle
karton' cardboard	quainted with)	kugl' bullet	leon' lion
kas' cash box	kondamn' condemn	kuir' cock	lepos' hare
kaserol' stewpan	kondis' stipulation	kukoi' cookey, cake	lem' learn
kaste' helmet	konduk' to conduct	kukol' cuckoo	lest' skillful, clever
kastor' castle	kondut' to behave	kukurm' cucumber	letor' letter, epistle
katos' beaver	konfis' to confuse	kul' gnat	lev' lift, raise
kauf' hide (vb.)	konk' shell [infer	kuler' spoon	li he, him
kaštan' chestnut	konk'und' conclude,	kulp' fault, blame	liber' free
kat' cat	konkur' compete	kun' with, <i>kun'</i>	libr' book
katar' catarrh	konkurs' enter into	together	lien' spleen
haton' fetter	competition [ous	kunkil' rabbit	lig' bind, tie
kauf' cause	konos' be conscient	kupr' copper	lim' wood (the sub-
kauf' cave, hollow	konoserv' preserve	kur' run	lim' limit [stance
kauf' cavern	konos' to advise	kura' cure, treat	limak' snail
kauf' case (gram.)	konos' console	kurag' courage	lin' flax
so that (conj.)	konstat' to state,	kurb' curve	ling' language
het' cellar	establis'h (a fact)	kurton' curtain	lin' line
hel'k' some, several	konstern' amaze	kusen' cushion	lip' lip
helner' waiter	konstru' to build	kus' lie (down)	lit' bel [alphabet]
her' kernel	kontant' cashdown	kutim' custom	litor' letter (of the
hest' chest, box	kontor' office (com.)	kut' tub, vat	liv' supply, deliver
hla what kind of	kontrari' against	kuz' cousin	log' entice
hia why, where-	konven' to suit, be-	kvankam' altho'gh	log' to lodge, live
hiam when [fore	fitting	kvant' quantity	lok' place, locality
hie where	konvink' convince	kwat' four (town)	long' long
hie how, as	kor' heart	kwartal' quarter (of	lorin' telescope
hie whose	kor' basket	kwazau' as if	lot' draw lots
hie what (thing)	kor' cord (music)	kor'k' oak	lu' rent
hie how much	kor'k' to correct	kvot' calm	lus' play
hie' kiss	kor'k' cork	kwiv' five	lus' lul asleep [ne
hie who, which	kor' horn	kvitano' receipt	ium' light - to shi-
hieff' fathom (ms.)	kor'p' body	L	lumb' loins
hieff' clear, plain	kor' court, yard	la' la the	lun' moon
hies' class, sort	kor' raven	labor' labour	lund' Monday
hieff' key (piano)	kor' cost, price	lae' weary, tired'	lup' wolf
hieff' educated	kor' dirt	lacert' lizard	lupo' hogs
hieff' bend, incline	kor'ton' cotton	lae' lace (boot)	lustr' chandelier
hieff' take trou-	korun' quail (bird	lat' tin plate	lutr' solder
hieff' sluee [ble	korov' to brood	tar lava	lutr' otter
hieff' boy	korov' envelope	ing' lake	
kned' to knead	korov' cover	tar' varnish	
kebold' goblin, imp	korad' spit (saliva)	lake' lackey	
kej'n' wedge	korad' grate		
kek' cock	korajon' pencil		
kek' hip	koramp' clamp		

L
L, la the
labor' labour
lae' weary, tired'
lacert' lizard
lae' lace (boot)
lat' tin plate
tar lava
ing' lake
tar lava
tar' varnish
lake' lackey

M
mag' unleashed
mag' chew [bread
magazzin' ware-
mag' magichouse,

Mai' May
majest' majesty

majestr' master
(profession)

makler' broker

makul' stain, spot

makzel' jaw

maf.d.opposites (5)

magistrin spite ol

mam' breast (fem.)

man' hand

mans' eat

manier' manner

manik' sleeve

mank' lack, want

mar' sea

marč' swamp [gain]

marčand' to bar-

marčand Tuesday

mark' mark, stamp

marmor' marble

Mart' March

marč' march

martel' hammer

mason' mason's

mast' mast [work]

master' master (of

maš' mesh [house])

mašin' machine

maten' morning

matrac' mattress

matur' ripe

mebl' piece of fur-

med' wick [furniture]

mejl' mile

mej' badger

mejagaz' turkey

mekl' milk (vb.)

mekl' self, selves

membr' member

memor' memory

memor' order(goods)

menang' tell a lie

mentan' thin

merkt' merit [day]

merkerd' Wednesday

met' put, place

metli' handcraft

mez' sea-gull

mez' middle

mezur' measure

mi l., me

mil' honey

men' mien

megdal' almond

migr' migrate

miks' mix

mil' thousand

milit' war

minac' to threaten

mlop' short-sight

mozot' forget-me-

mrbl' wonder [not]

mistar' mystery

mizer' misery

moder' moderate

modest' modest

mok' to mock

mol' soft

mon' money

monah' monk

monat' monarch

monat' month

mond' world

mont' mountain

monty' show

mor' habit, usage

morbil' measles

moreb' bite

mergau' to-mor-

mort' die [row]

mortor' mortar

most' general title

'Vi a reg'a most'

'o, your majesty,

'vi a most' your

honour

mov' move (tr.)

movel' mill

muig' to roar, (wind

musik' mucus [etc.]

mult' much, many

mur' wall

mus' mouse

muskul' muscle

mustard' mustard

mut' fly (a)

mut' dumb

N

n.e. of direct obj. (s.)

nacl' nation

način' way

najbar' neighbour

najl' n.l. [gale]

najting' if nightin-

nasp' turnip

nask' give birth,

naski' be born,

naski' beget

natur' nature

nau' name

naux' to sicken

nau' nose

ne no, not

nebul' fog

necess' necessary

negro' business

negl' know [nor]

nek- neither

nenia' no kind of

neniam' never

nenie' nowhere

neniel' no how

nenies' no one's

nenie' nothing

neniom' not a bit

neniu' nobody

nenip' grandson

nenpr' unfailingly

nest' nest

net' clean copy

nev' nephew

ni we, us

nigr' black

nivel' level [dim. (7)]

nj' d. fem. affect.

nobel' nobleman

nobl' noble

nokt' night

nom' name

nombr' number

nord' north

nev' new [ber.]

Novembr' November

nul' well !

nuanc' shade, hue

nub' cloud

nud' naked

nuk' nap of neck

nuk' nut

nul' zero [(No.)

numer' number

nun' now

nur' only (adv.)

nutr' nourish, feed

O

s.e. of nouns (p. 1)

obs' obey [ject

objekt' thing, ob-

obječi' ..fold, *du'obj*

two-fold (s. p. 3)

obstin' obstinate

odor' odour, smell

ofend' offend

offer' to offer (as

sacrifice, gift, &c.)

offic' office (employ-

off) often [ment]

ok eight [sion, case

okaz' occur - occas-

okident' west

Oktaobr' Oktobr

okul' eye

olup' occupy

ol than (p. 3)

oil' oil

olmar' lobster

ombr' shadow

ombrel' umbrella

on' d. fractions: (3)

ond' wave

oni one, people,

they: (s. p. 3)

onkl' uncle (4)

onf' c. fut. part. act.

op' d. collective

numerals (p. 3)

opini' to opine

opportun' handy

or' gold [arity]

ord' order, regu-

ordin' order. (de-

coration)

orden' order, com-

oref' ear [mand

orf' orphan

orgon' organ(mus.)

orient' east

ornam' ornament

os e. of fut. tense

osced' yawn [(p.4)

ost' bone

ostr' oyster

ot' e.fut. part. pass.

ov' egg [(4)]

P

pas' peace

patiens' patience

paf' shoot, fire

pag' pay

pag' page (book)

paj' straw

pak' pack, put up

pal' pale

palas' palace

palis' stake

palp' touch, feel

palpebr' eyelid

pan' bread

pantalon' trousers

pantoff' slipper

par' pope

parap' parrot

paper' poppy

paper' paper

papill' butterfly

par' pair, brace

pardon' forgive

parone' relation

park' by heart

part' speak

part' part

parti' party, par-

parta' pass

passer' sparrow

past' passion

past' Easter

paste' paste

pastri' pie

[or

pastri' priest, past-

er

pasture' feed

pat' frying-pan

pat' father

paui' pause

pav' peacock

paviment' pavement

ped' piece

ped' pitch

peg' wood-pecker

pejaz' landscape

pek' sin

peki' to pickle

pepl' drive, chase

pet' fur [away]

pet' basin

petn' endeavour

pend' hang [atr.]

penit' paintbrush

penis' think

pent' to repeat

pent' paint

pop' to chirp

por by means of

perch' perch (fish)

peri' lose

perdril' partridge

perish' perish

perfikt' to perfect

perfid' betray

pergamen' parch-

pearl' pearl [ment]

permas' permit

peron' platform

persik' peach

pes' weigh (tr.)

pest' plague

petof' request, beg

petof' roguish,

petof' play the wanton

petrol' paraffin oil

petrossel' parsley

pez' weigh (intr.)

pi' piou

pie' foot, leg

pig' magpie

pik' prick, sting

pin' pine-tree
 pin' pitch
 ping' pin
 pint' pointed
 pig' pipe (tobacco)
 pip' pepper
 pir' pear
 pirit' gravel
 pist' to pound,
 pix' pea [crush
 plac' public square
 ple' please
 plad' plate
 plafon' ceiling
 plane' sole (of the
 plank) floor (foot)
 plant' plant (vb.)
 plat' flat, plain
 plaud' splash, clap
 ple' most (p. g.)
 plekt' weave, plait
 plen' full
 plend' complain
 pliet' tray
 plazur' pleasure
 pil' more
 plor' mourn, weep
 plu' further, longer
 plug' plough
 plumb' pen
 plumb' lead(metal)
 pluv' rain
 po a piece, at rate of
 pokal' cup, goblet
 polis' police
 polygon' buckwheat
 polis' polish
 polus' pole
 polv' dust
 pom' apple
 ponard' dagger
 pont' bridge
 popl' poplar-tree
 popol' people
 por' for, for benefit
 porr' door [of
 pork] hog, pig
 port' wear, carry
 possed' possess
 post' after, behind
 poston' station(mil)
 pestul' require, do
 pos' pocket [mang
 post' post, mail
 potent' mighty
 pos' be able, can
 pra'ave' great
 grandfather
 prav' right (adj.)
 presig' chiefly
 protex' precise
 proflik' preach
 prefer' prefer
 pray' pray
 prem' press
 prem' prize
 pren' take
 pres' print (vb.)
 preskai' almost
 prot'ready [(prep.)
 proter' be yond
 prez' price
 present' to present

pri concerning, ab
 prin'cipe [out
 prinolp' principle
 printamp' spring
 privat' private[time
 pro owing to, for
 the sake of
 percent' interest
 proces' lawsuit
 produkt' produce
 profund' deep
 prokrast' to delay
 proxim' near
 promen' to walk
 promes' promise
 propos' propose
 prop'r' (one's) own
 prosper' succeed,
 prov' try [thrive
 proviz' provide
 prujn' hoar (frost)
 prun' plum
 prunt' to lend
 pruv' to prove,
 pugn' fist
 pul' flea
 pulm' lung
 pulv' gunpowder
 pump' to pump
 pun' punish
 punkt' point
 punx' lace
 pup' doll
 pur' pure
 pus' pus, matter
 puu' push
 put' well (subst.)
 putr' to rot

R

rab' rob [count
 rabat' rebate, dis
 raben' rabbi
 rabbit' to plane
 rad' wheel
 radi' beam, ray
 radik' root
 rafan' horseradish
 rafin' refine
 rajd' to ride (on
 horseback) [rity
 rajt' right, autho
 rakont' relate
 ramp' cr'wl
 ran' frog
 ran'canc'd
 rand' edge, margin
 rang' rank, grade
 rap' long radish
 rapid' quick, rapid
 report' report
 rats' to rake
 rat' rat
 raatk' boar
 raup' caterpillar
 rav' ravish, delight
 raz' shave
 re'dagain, back(g)
 redakcio' editorial
 office
 reg' rule, govern
 regal' regale
 reign' State, realm

regul' rule
 rek' king, reiga
 rekomand' reward
 rekt' straight
 rel' rail
 rem' to row [chair
 rembour' to stuff,
 rempar' bulwark
 ren' kidney
 renkont' meet
 renvers' upset
 respond' reply
 rest' remain [rant
 restaurad' restaura
 ret' net
 rev'dream (awake)
 rezultat' result
 rib' currant
 ribel' to rebel
 rice' obtain, get,
 rid' rich [receive
 rif' laugh
 rifug' take refuge
 rifuz' to refuse
 rigard' look at
 rigt' bolt
 rikolt' rep
 rila'f relate to, con
 rim' rhyme [carn
 rimark' to notice
 rimed' means
 rimmen' strap
 ring' ring (subst.)
 rip' rib
 ripet' repeat
 ripud' repose, rest
 riprod' reproach
 river' river
 riz' rice
 rod' roadstead
 romp' break
 rond' round, circle
 rank' to snore
 ros' dew
 rost' roast (anim.)
 rostr' trunk (of
 rok' company (mil.)
 roz' rose
 rub' rubbish
 ruband' ribbon
 rubow' ruby
 rug' red
 rukl' eructate
 ruf' roll (tr.)
 rust' rust (tr.)
 rus' trick, ruse

S

sabat' Saturday
 sabl' sand
 sag' arrow
 sag' wise
 sak' sack
 sal' salt
 salat' salad
 salar' salary
 salik' willow
 salm' salmon
 salt' leap, jump
 salut' salute, greet
 sam' same
 san' health

sang' blood
 sankt' holy
 sap' soap
 sark' to weed
 sat' satiated
 sauc' sauce
 sav' save [tally)
 sef' know (men
 scienc' science
 scjur' squirrel
 se if
 sob' grease, fat
 sed' but
 seg' raw
 seg' seat, chair
 sek' dry
 sekaf' rye
 sekko' dissect
 sekks' sex
 sekly' follow
 sel' saddle
 sem' sow
 semajn' week
 sen' without
 sens' sense
 send' send
 sent' feel, percieve
 sep' seven [ber
 Septembar September
 serch' search
 seri' series
 serios' serious
 serur' lock, (subst.)
 serv' serve
 ses' six
 season' season
 si' him, her, it,
 one-self, them
 selves (reflex.)
 silb' to hiss
 sid' sit
 sig' besiege
 sign' seal (vb.)
 sign' sign, token
 signif' signify
 silin' syllable, sil
 ab'i to spell
 silent' to be silent
 silk' flint
 silk' silk
 sim' monkey
 simil' like, similar
 simp' simple
 singulf' hiccup
 sinjor' Sir, Mr.
 sitel' bucket
 situac' situation
 skal' scale [blade
 skaplo' shoulder
 skarab' beetle
 skatof' small box
 skerm' to fence
 skid' to sketch
 sklav' slave
 skrib' write
 sku' shake
 skulpt' sculpture
 skvam' scale (fish)
 smaraldf' emerald
 sober' sober
 societ' society
 soff' thirst
 soff' threshold

soi only, alone
soldat' soldier
solem' solemn
solv' loosen, solve
somer' summer
son' sound (subst.)
song' dream
sonor' give out a sound (as a bell)
soir' long for
sorb' absorb
sorc' witchcraft
sovag' wild, savage
sort' fate, lot [age
space' space
spec' kind, species
spiegel' mirror
sport' experience
spec' *esp' spe'* disburse, *en spe'* receive (money)
spic' spice
spik' ear (of corn)
spin' spin
spinac' spinach
spir' breathe
spirit' spirit, mind
split' in defiance (of)
spong' sponge
spirit' wit
apron' apron
spur' spur
sput' expectorate
stab' staff (mil.)
staf' station
stal' stable, stall
stamp' stam', stan' tin [mark
standard' flag
stang' pole
star' stand
stat' state, condition
stich' stitch [tion
stir' star
stark' manure
stern' stretch out,
-ia prostrate [tie
ste' tor' (death)-rat-
stomach' stomach
strab' squint
strang' strange
strat' street
stre' stretch
strek' streak, line
stri' stripe, wide
strig' owl [treak
strut' ostrich
stup' tow
sturn' starling
sub under, beneath
sud' sudden
sud' suck
sud' south
suf'er suffer
suf'ficient
sufek' suffocate
suk' sap, juice [(tr.)
sukoon' amber
sukos' have suc-
sukker' sugar (cess)
sulfur' sulphur
sulk' wrinkle
sun' sun
sup' soup
super over, above

supez' suppose
supr' upper (adj.)
sur' upon, on
surd' deaf
surtut' overcoat
sut' arrange mat-
rimony
sven' to swoon
swing' swing (tr.)

S

saf sheep
sajn' seem
sak' chess
sanco' shake (tr.)
sang' change (tr.)
sarg' load (a gun)
sarg' load, burden
sat' to prize, like
saum' foam, spray
sat' shell, peel, rind
satk' brace (trous.)
sors' joke
si she, her
sild' shield
sim' get mouldy
sind' shingle
sink' ham
sip' ship
sir' tear, rend
sirm' shelter
sim' mud
slew lock, fasten
simaz' hearty kiss
simir' smear, anoint
simur' string
sov' push forward
sovel' shovel
spar' be sparing
sprin' spin
sprut' sprinkle
frank' cupboard
sraub' screw
stat' steel
stat' State
stip' log of wood
stof' steal
stof' stuff, tissue
ston' stone
stop' stop up
strump' stocking
stop' step
su' shoe
suld' owe
sultr' shoulder
sut' shoot out (corn
svel' swell [acc.
svit' perspire

T

tahak' tobacco
tabef' list
tabl' table
tabul' plank, board
tag' day
tailor' tailor
taks' estimate

taif' waist
taip' mole (animal)
tambur' drum
tamed however
tapef' tapestry
tapis' carpet
tas' cup (tea)
taug' be fit for
tavol' layer
ta' tea
ted' tedious
tag' cover (furniture, &c.)
tegment' root
tek's weave
telor' plate
temp' time [(anat.)
tempi' temple
ten' hold, grasp
tend' tent
tent' tempt, try
tar' earth
terur' terror
testudi' tortoise
tetru' grouse
tin such a
tial therefore
tiam then
tie there
tisi thus, so
tild' tickle
tilf' lime-tree
tim' fear
time' moth [es
tint' clink of glass
tint' that (thing)
tio' so much
tir' draw, pull
titol' title
tu' that
tol' linen
toler' tolerate
tomb' tomb, grave
tond' clip, shear
tond' thunder
tor'd wind, twist
torf' peat
torn' turn (lathe)
tornist' knapsack
torf' tart
tra through
trab' beam (of wood)
traduk' translate
traf hit, reach
trajt' feature
trakt' transact
trans' cut
trankv'l' quiet
trans across
tre very
trem' tremble
trem' to dip
tren' drag, trail
trezor' treasure
tri three
trink' drink
tritik' wheat
tro too (much)
tromp' deceive
trotuar' side-walk
troy' find
tru' hole
truef' force upon

trunk' trunk, stem
tub' tube
tuber' bulb
tur' tuft
tuj immediately
tuk cloth, kerchief
tur' tower
ture' thrush
turment' torment
turn' turn (v.a.)
tus' cough
tul' touch
tut' whole, quite

U

u e. imperative (4)
uf d. containing (?)
uf d. remarkable
for (p. 7)
um' indef. suffix (7)
umblik' navel
ung' nail (finger)
unu one
urb' town
urs' bear (animal)
urtik' nettle [(p. 4)
us e. of conditional
uter' womb
util' useful
uz' use

V

vag' roam
vak' wax
val' valley
valor' be worth
van' vain, needless
vang' cheek
vant' vain, futile
vapor' steam
varb' to recruit
variol' smallpox
varm' warm
var' nurse (child)
vast' wide, vast
vat' vase
vej' vein
vek' wake, arouse
vel' sail (subst.)
velk' fade
velur' velvet
ven' come
vend' sell
vendred' Friday
venon' poison
veng' vengeance
venk' conquer
vent' wind
ventol' to air
ventr' belly
ver' true
verd' green [birch
verg' rod - whip
verk' work (liter-
verm' worm [ary])
vers' verse
verd' pour
veruk' wort
vesp' wasp
vesper' evening
vespert' bat
vest' to clothe
veit' waistcoat
vet' bet, wager

Esperanto

veto ^r ' weather [cle]	vinagr ^r vinegar	vizag ^k face	vert ^r word
veto ^r go (by vehi-	vintr ^r winter	vizit ^r visit, call on	vost ^r tail
vexzl ^k blister, blad-	vio ^r violet	voc ^r voice	vuul ^r veil
vi you	violon ^r violin	voj ^r way, road	vulp ^r fox
vland ^r meat, flesh	vip ^r whip	vojak ^r voyage	vultur ^r vulture
vi ^r row, rank, turn	vir ^r man, male	vol ^r call	vund ^r wound
vid ^r see	virg ^r virginal	vol ^r wish, will	Z
vidv ^r widower	virt ^r virtue	volont ^r willingly	zon ^r girdle
vigl ^r alert	vitr ^r wife	volv ^r wrap round,	zorg ^r care for
vilag ^r villag ^r	vitr ^r glass (sub-	vom ^r vomit (roll up	zum ^r to buzz
vin ^r wine	wiv ^r live [stance]		

This series of articles does not aim to be a treatise leading to the complete mastery of the language in ten lessons, but a simple statement of rules, with enough examples, and exercises to establish them firmly in the mind; their chief aim is clearness.

ALPHABET.

The letters of the alphabet are:

a, b, c, ĉ, d, e, f, g, ĝ, h h, i, j, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, r, s, ŝ, t, u, ū, v, z.

PRONUNCIATION.

Vowels.—Let the beginner make a clear differentiation between the vowel sounds:—a, e, i, o, u, as uttered in the English words:—par, pear, pier, pore, poor,—pronounced briskly, so that one vowel cannot, in any combination, be mistaken for another, and he will have a sufficiently correct Esperanto pronunciation of the vowel sounds. In fact, corresponding in sound to the English words, par, pear, pier, pore, poor, we have the Esperanto words: *paro*, a pair, a brace—*per*, by means of,—*piro*, a pear,—*por*, for, for the benefit of, *pura*, pure.

U is used only in the combination aū, and eū. AŪ is pronounced like the ow of cow. EU like ayw in wayward.

Consonants.—The consonants are pronounced as in English with the following exceptions:

- C pronounced like ts in pits, Tsar.
- C pronounced like ch in choke, church.
- G pronounced like g in get or go, always hard.
- G pronounced like j in Joe or g in George.
- H pronounced like ch in loch, strong aspirate.
- J pronounced like y in yoke.
- J pronounced like s in pleasure.
- S pronounced like s in so, never with the sound of z.
- S pronounced like sh in show.
- Z pronounced like z in zone.

Therefore the Esperanto alphabet is pronounced: a, bo, tso, tsho, do, e, fo, go, jo, ho, kho, i, yo, so (with the s sounded as in pleasure), ko, lo, mo, no, o, ro, so, sho, to, u, ūo, vo, zo. Taking care to give always the same sound to o.

The four following combinations offer some difficulty:—aj, ej, oj, uj. Let us begin with the last one. Pronounce the word "halle-lujah" and separate the sound which pertains to uj, you have the correct pronunciation of the Esperanto uj. Give to a, e, o, the same finish you gave to u in uj and you have it.

Pronunciation of Words.—There are no mute letters in Esperanto, every vowel or consonant is pronounced distinctly. When two vowels or two consonants come together they must be pronounced clearly and distinctly. Every word of more than one syllable is accented on the last syllable but one. In order to separate words into syllables: 1. Separate them into their grammatical elements. 2. In any element, a consonant between two vowels forms a syllable with the second vowel; if there are more than one consonant between two vowels, the first consonant belongs to the first vowel and closes the syllable, and the other or others go with the second vowel. Ex.—krajono (krah-yo-no), pencil; elemento (eh-leh-mehn-to), element; malkvieteco (mahl-kvee-eh-teh-tso), restlessness; ciujara, (chee-oo-yah-ra), yearly; noktomezo (nok-to-meh-zo), midnight; trouzi (tro-oo-zi), to abuse; tiom (tee-om), as much; perei (peh-reh-ee), to perish; mallumigo (mahl-loo-mee-djo), eclipse.

Try to utter each vowel the same way every time. Of course you cannot do this. Nobody does who speaks with any fluency. Involuntarily you will pronounce a vowel ending a syllable with a shade of difference from the vowel in a syllable ending with a consonant. Do not let that worry you. And you will find a tendency to lengthen the accented vowel sometimes. That also is harmless.

Grammar

There is one definite article, *la*, invariable. There is no indefinite article.

Nouns always end in *o*. Ex: *patro*—father.

Adjectives always end in *a*. Ex: *patra*—paternal.

The plural of nouns, adjectives, participles, and pronouns (except only the personal pronouns) end in *j*. Ex: *patroj*—fathers; *bonaj patroj*—good fathers.

The accusative (objective case) always ends in *n*. Ex: *Mi amas mian bonan patron*—I love my good father. *Ni amas niajn bonajn patrojn*—We love our good fathers.

Adverbs always end in *e*. Ex: *bone*—well; *patre*—paternally. (There are a few non-derived adverbs without the *e* ending, as *jam ankau tiel, kiel*.)

The personal pronouns are: *mi*—I; *vi*—you; *li*—he; *si*—she; *gi*—it; *oni*—one; *ni*—we; *vi*—you; *ili*—they. Also a reflexive pronoun *si*, which always refers to the subject of its own clause. All these pronouns form the accusative case by adding *n*.

The verb has no separate ending for persons or number.

The present ends in *as*. Ex: *mi amas*—I love.

The past ends in *is*. Ex: *Vi amis*—You loved.

The future ends in *os*. Ex: *Li amos*—He will live.

The conditional ends in *us*. Ex: *Ni amus*—We should love.

The imperative ends in *u*. Ex: *amu*—love! *ni amu!* let us love! This form also serves for the subjunctive. Ex: *Dio ordonas ke ni amu unu la alian*—God commands us to love one another.

The infinite ends in *i*. Ex: *ami*—to love.

There are three active participles.

The present participle active is formed by *ant*. Ex: *amanta*—loving; *amanto*—lover.

The past participle active is formed by *int.* Ex: *aminta*—having loved; *la skribinto*—the man who has written.

The future participle active is formed by *ont.* Ex: *amonta*—being about to love.

There are three passive participles.

The present participle passive is formed by *at.* Ex: *amata*—being loved.

The past participle passive is formed by *it.* Ex: *amita*—having been loved.

The future participle passive is formed by *ot.* Ex: *amota*—being about to be loved.

All compound tenses, as well as the passive voice, are formed by the verb *esti* (to be) with a participle. Compound tenses are employed only when the simple forms are inadequate. Ex: *mi estas aminta*—I have loved (lit. I am having loved); *vi estis aminta*—you have loved (lit. you were having loved); *mi estus amita*—I should have been loved.

Having read carefully the above grammatical rules a few times, let the beginner translate the following paragraph from Esperanto into English. Each word has been separated into its component parts so that all that remains to be done is to look up each part in the vocabulary and the sense will readily be found.

PAROL-AD-J.

Ge-sinjir-o-j, mi nun dir-os al vi kelk-a-j-n vort-o-j-n esperant-e. Mi kred-as ke vi aüd-os ke esperant-o est-as tre facil-a kaj bel-son-a lingv-o. Ver-e, gi est-as tiel facil-a kaj simpl-a, ke oni tut-e ne hav-as mal-facil-ec-o-n por lern-i gi-n. La lernant-o-j pov-as ordinare komprend-i, leg-i, skrib-i kaj parol-i gi-n en tre mal-long-a temp-o. La fakt-o ke esperant-o en-hav-as tre mal-mult-a-j-n, vokal-a-j-n son-o-j-n, kaj ke la vokal-o-j est-as ciu-j pien-son-a-j, est-ig-as gi-n mult-e pli facil-a ol la ali-a-j lingv-o-ju por aüd-i, cu por el-parol-i.

Mi kred-as ke mal-long-a lern-ad-o est-os sufic-a por vi-n komprend-ig-i, ke la hom-o-j de ciu-j land-o-j pov-as inter-parol-i esperant-e sen mal-facil-ec-o.

Mi ne de-ten-os vi-n pli long-e. Fin-ant-e, mi-las-os kun vi du fraz-et-oj-n: unu-e, por la ideal-ist-o-j, kiu-j cel-asunu frat-ec-on inter la popol-o-j de ciu lando, la esperant-a-n deviz-o-n “Dum ni spir-as ni esper-as”; due, por la hom-o-j praktik-a-j, la praktik-a-n konsil-o-n: “Lern-u esperant-o-n.”

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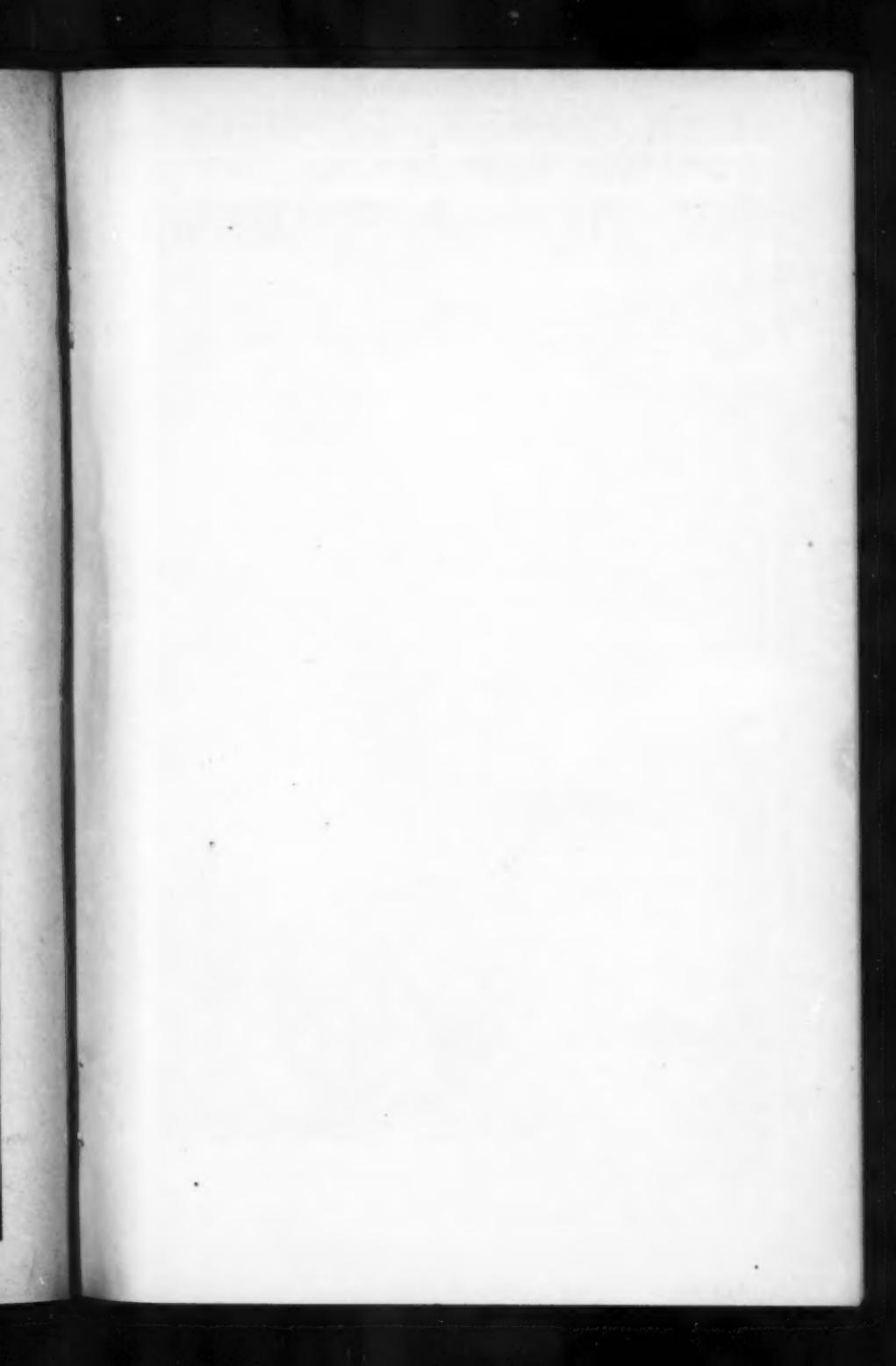
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